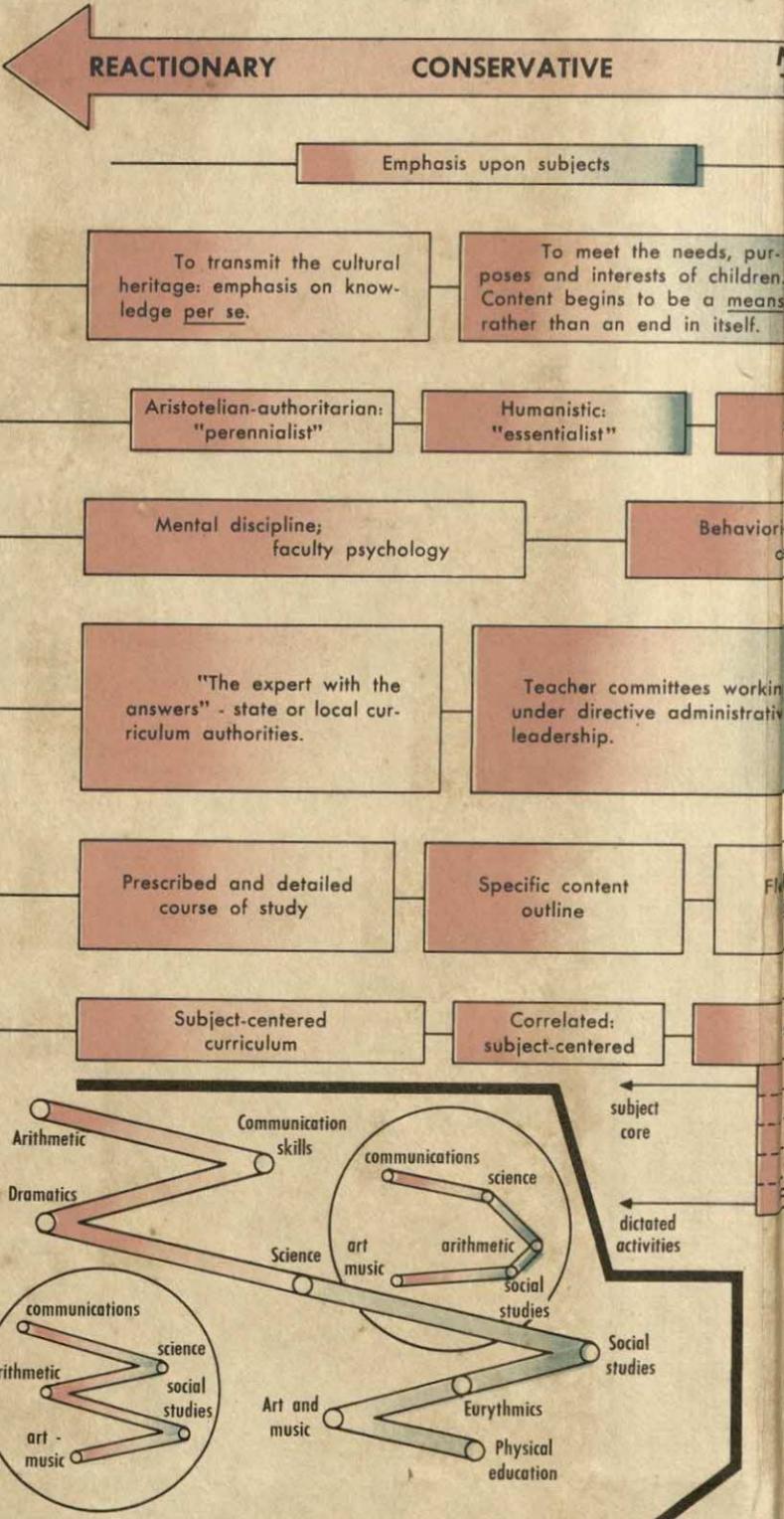


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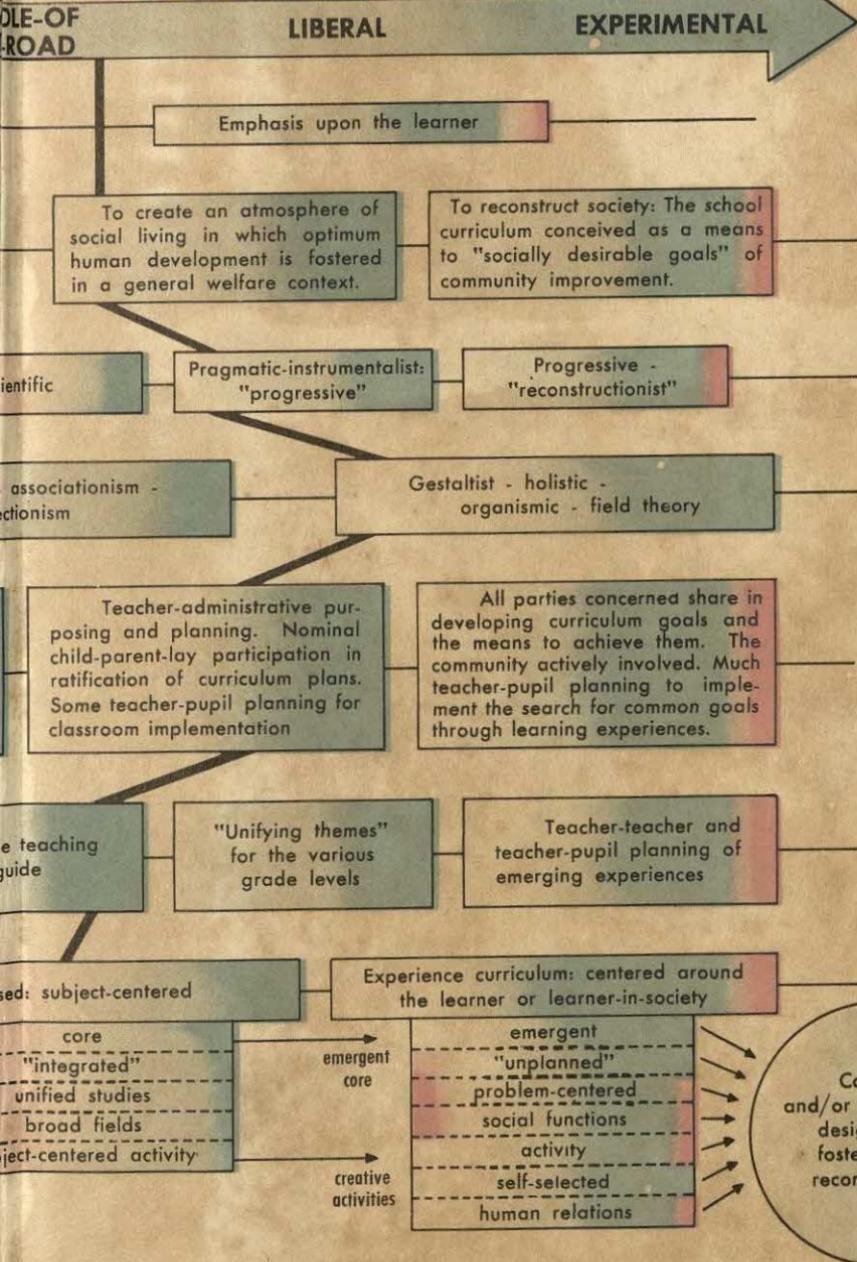


Figure 11, Chapter Eight



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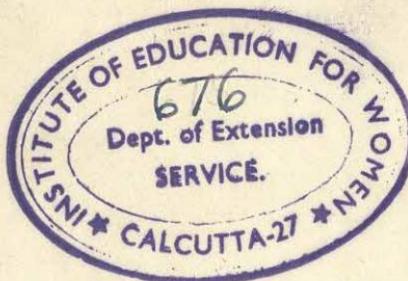


HAROLD G. SHANE

Northwestern University

WILBUR A. YAUCH

Northern Illinois State Teachers College



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For
RUTH and LYDIA

PREFACE

WITHIN the lifetime of men now living there have been many and dramatic changes in the role of the creative educational leader. During this period concepts as to what constitutes effective leadership have changed almost beyond recognition. New interpretations of the purpose of education and the functions of the school have been widely studied and generally accepted. Furthermore, substantial bodies of research with important meanings for the administrator and supervisory consultant have come into being to shape both educational thought and practice.

As outcomes of the dynamic changes continually modify the work of the professionally competent leader, he is called upon to work in new and challenging ways in the improvement and appraisal of teaching, in developing sound parent-community relationships, and in endeavoring with the school staff to improve the curriculum in ways which promise to enhance the quality of learning of children and young adolescents.

Creative School Administration was planned and written with the humble but firm determination to share with prospective and present administrators and supervisors certain viewpoints regarding the nature and functions of able leadership, and to portray such leadership in action in the improvement of school living. While theory is explored, at least equal attention is directed toward specific questions, practices, and procedures which constitute promising suggestions for the solution of concrete problems confronting the educator in his daily activities.

It is the writers' hope that all persons working in elementary and junior high schools will find the present volume of help in their coöperative efforts to improve the teaching-learning process. Throughout the chapters which follow emphasis is placed upon the fact that creative educational leadership should be shared and exercised by *all* individuals concerned with the schools; not only by administrators or teaching personnel, but by children, parents, and other citizens in the community. In general, a fruitless discussion of *who* shall lead is avoided in favor of an emphasis upon the quality of leadership and the circumstances which are likely to influence it.

It would have been literally impossible to attempt to write this book without the unselfish help of many persons in the teaching profession with whom the writers have had the privilege of associating and interacting for a number of years past. It is hoped that some of these individuals will recognize in the pages which follow the impact of their educational values and ideas on the viewpoints which are expressed. To them the writers are deeply grateful.

For particularly direct contribution in reading and criticizing the manuscript, thanks and grateful acknowledgment are due Professor Lowry W. Harding of the Ohio State University. Also deserving of special appreciation is Dean E. T. McSwain, the School of Education, Northwestern University. Without the wholehearted encouragement and generous allowance of time extended by President Leslie A. Holmes and Dean Romeo M. Zulauf of Northern Illinois State Teachers College one of the authors would have found it difficult to contribute his share to this book.

*Evanston, Illinois
De Kalb, Illinois
March 1, 1954*

H. G. S.
W. A. Y.

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*The Nature and Functions
of Creative Leadership*



CHAPTER ONE

THE NATURE OF LEADERSHIP IN EDUCATION



CREATIVE leadership has been the mainspring of progress in America since the first quarter of the seventeenth century, when small groups of Europeans began to settle in the area which was to become the United States. These immigrants left behind them, for a variety of individual reasons, the centuries-old restraints which had controlled the behavior of serf, freedman, merchant, and nobleman in the old world. They came to an empire where the ruler to be obeyed was uncompromising nature. But nature, unlike human monarchs, was a ruler who was waiting to be subdued and transformed into an almost incredibly generous and benevolent servant of the men and women who had the courage to tame him. Creative, cooperative leadership was equal to the task.

By a happy combination of circumstances, a substantial number of the people who trickled into the colonial periphery of the new continent brought with them dreams of a better world for themselves and their children. They were dreams dimly sensed, but nonetheless powerful and compelling; dreams based on a thrilling concept new to the mind of man.

This concept was the revolutionary idea that political, intellectual, and religious freedoms for all men held the promise

of new ways of life in which individuals could live with dignity, self-respect, and an earned share of material security. Fortunately, the potential wealth of nature's empire was awaiting the early settlers. Vast stores of raw materials to lend bone and muscle to their dreams literally lay at their feet.

EDUCATION AND SELF-REALIZATION

Almost from the outset, education found a place in the seventeenth century dream of a better world which has found so large a measure of material fulfillment in the United States of the twentieth century. Quickly, it seems, the newcomers developed and expressed the conviction that all men must be educated if political, intellectual, and religious freedoms were to have significant meaning in a new culture.

Within a few decades of their arrival, in 1642 and 1647, the Massachusetts colonists, for example, enacted laws with the germ of the idea of free public education boldly set forth in the quaintly worded paragraphs of another era.

The Deep Roots of Creative Educational Leadership. Clearly, from early American beginnings, a discerning leadership was at work, molding with imagination and creative power the structure of educational opportunity. Sometimes this leadership was so completely within the group that the names of countless men who espoused dynamic ideas have been lost to posterity. Again, it found expression in the powerful voices of such individuals as Thomas Jefferson, Horace Mann, Henry Barnard, and Thomas Gallaudet.

The voices and actions of educational leadership, however clearly or faintly discerned, made clear three principles. These have become an integral part of the value system of present-day America. Universal, free public education is now recognized as imperative: (1) to maintain the political health of a democracy, (2) to enable each child to have his full, fair opportunity for self-fulfillment, and (3) to maintain and strengthen religious and ethical values.

In the seventeenth century it is likely that literacy was one

of the major goals of educational leadership in order to insure the individual's ability to read and interpret the Scriptures. Soon, however, the significance of an educated electorate was recognized.¹ The new arrival in America was quick to note that the dogma of the Old World's caste system—"you *can* not and *dare* not try to rise above your station in life"—no longer held true for his children, particularly if they could obtain an education. Thus to the goal of religious and ethical values was added the principle that each child had a right to self-fulfillment through education.

Deep are the roots of creative, insightful leadership in the United States. Great is the task of that leadership in the critical present if it is to be worthy of the proud educational traditions of the past, traditions without which the present as we know it would never have existed.

The Challenge to Leadership Today. In a widely read article of a few years ago, Henry Steele Commager, the historian, credited public education with four vital contributions. He wrote that the schools had helped self-government to work by providing an enlightened citizenry, by creating national unity in the face of powerful disrupting forces, by promoting the successful Americanization of millions who immigrated here between 1840 and 1910, and by enabling the most polyglot of modern societies to stand strong and free without riotous social and economic privilege or ruinous political divisions.²

The great challenge to creative educational leadership today is to insure that the schools continue to contribute as significantly as they have in the past to the realization of a continually improved way of associated living for all men.

Much, much more is known today about effective learning and vital teaching than was known even a few decades ago. Can leadership in the years ahead do as well as in the past when

¹ It was Thomas Jefferson who said, "Enlighten the people generally, and tyranny and oppressions of both mind and body will vanish. . . ."

² Henry Steele Commager, "Our Schools Have Kept Us Free," *Life*, 29:46-47, October 16, 1950. For an analogous but somewhat longer statement, cf. *The American Elementary School*, XIIIth Yearbook, The John Dewey Society (New York, Harper and Brothers, 1953), Chapter I.

Massachusetts pioneered with the free common school idea, or when the Ordinance of 1787 set aside the central section of every congressional township ". . . for the maintenance of public schools. . ."? The beliefs and actions of many educators in positions of leadership in the United States attest to the fact that the answer is "yes." The educational heritage impels such an answer. And the heritage serves as a foundation for a book which is built on confidence in what can be achieved through successful, creative applications of this knowledge of learning and teaching to the problems which confront education.

CHANGING INTERPRETATIONS OF EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

Until the present century, and despite an evident faith in the power and value of universal education, the American people were apparently too busy building an empire, shaping a new economic order, and solving the growing problems of industrial might, to pay much heed to major changes and improvements needed in the schools. Attention was periodically given to moral values and to fundamental skills. However, there is little evidence of an awareness of the potential importance of the schools as means of extending and improving the fiber of living in an emerging culture. The results of this negligence may well be reflected in current problems created by the degree to which technological progress has outstripped progress toward social maturity in the United States.

Education itself was, in the nineteenth century, rapidly becoming a huge industry, involved in greatly increasing enrollments, expanding building programs, and complex business organization. But this growth was relatively slow over the period of approximately three hundred years (1607-1900). Then came the "big change" affecting our industrial, economic, cultural, and educational lives.

The Big Change. In three provocative and enlightening volumes Frederick Lewis Allen has documented this big change.³

³ The reader will be rewarded by reading any one, or all, of the following: Frederick Lewis Allen, *Only Yesterday*, a history of the 1920's (New York,

From slow beginnings during the earlier years of our country's existence there seems to have emerged in one gigantic spurt a tremendous revolution in manners, morals, economic life, and (considerably less well recognized) educational challenges and opportunities. The first fifty years of the twentieth century witnessed changes in ways of living that sometimes verge on the fantastic even to the people who accept them because they actually lived through them. Goods and services unobtainable by a great majority of people in 1900 are now common to all. Allen points to one simple illustration of this change by quoting statistics with respect to women's hose. In 1900, 155,000 pairs of silk stockings were manufactured, and these undoubtedly were possessed only by the economically privileged. In 1950, with a population approximately doubled, 543,000,000 pairs were made!⁴

During this same period of time other dramatic changes were occurring which had tremendous implications for leadership. The day of industrial tycoons passed. In their place arose a new kind of person: the professional manager, who often possesses little or no financial control of the enterprise.⁵ Ownership has now passed to millions of stockholders. Through the purchase of industrial stock by the millions of shares, and the graduated income tax, our industrial wealth has been distributed in new proportions—possessed by the many rather than the few; the extremes of great wealth and great poverty are materially narrowed. America truly is becoming a nation of equalized opportunity, yet is preserving the individual's chances for earning a substantial measure of recognition and material reward in excess of the average.

The big change has also occurred in another area of activity, already alluded to in the previous paragraph. Industrial management, in its efforts to increase productivity, has metaphorically

Harper and Brothers, 1931), *Since Yesterday*, a history of the 1930's (New York, Harper and Brothers, 1941), and *The Big Change*, a history of the first fifty years of the twentieth century (New York, Harper and Brothers, 1952). Also, cf. Mark Sullivan's six-volume history of the first twenty-five years of the same period in *Our Times* (New York, Scribner's, 1926-1935).

⁴ *The Big Change*, op. cit., p. 220.

⁵ Cf. C. W. Mills, *White Collar* (New York, Oxford University Press, 1951).

cally stumbled upon a new insight. As early as 1927, largely through the original investigations of Dr. Elton Mayo of the Harvard School of Business Administration, studies revealed that the old hierarchy of autocratic management placed over workers was not an effective means of creating productive and cooperative employees. Mayo and his colleagues discovered that more than mere wage incentives were necessary for increasingly productive work. It was learned that workers could be expected to devote their full energies to the job only when two conditions existed: (1) recognition by the worker that his labor was important and appreciated by those for whom he worked, and (2) recognition by management of the need to capitalize on the dynamics of group spirit and to create a desirable level of interaction among the workers.⁶

The results of these early investigations suggested important implications for industrial leadership. As one result the policies of industrial management have shifted appreciably in their emphases. In the place of autocratic owner-managers who depended upon arbitrary directions and exacted blind obedience to orders has come a new corps of professional managers interested and skilled in the arts of cooperative leadership. This transition is still too new for one to predict its eventual outcome, but it seems certain that the future of industrial activity will find a larger place for concern for the individual than has been the case in the past.

Certainly if cooperative, creative, and democratic leadership has been found efficient and desirable by profit-minded industry it is past time for education to use a similar approach. Further, there is every reason to expect that the public will respect education for utilizing democratic leadership more fully.

The Playing Fields of Eton. Arthur Wellesley, Duke of Well-

⁶ Full accounts of the Western Electric Co. experiment may be found in Elton Mayo, *Human Problems of an Industrial Civilization* (Cambridge, Harvard University Press, 1945), and F. J. Roethlisberger and W. J. Dickson, *Management and the Worker* (Cambridge, Harvard University Press, 1939). For a good summary of the advance in knowledge in human relations, cf. Stuart Chase, *The Proper Study of Mankind* (New York, Harper and Brothers, 1948). Also cf. Robert Dubin's sociological approach in *Human Relations in Administration* (New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1951).

ington, the Iron Duke who bested Napoleon at Waterloo in 1815, is quoted as having said that the battle was won on the playing fields of Eton, the famed British school where many of his officers had studied and presumably acquired the power and discipline of leadership.⁷ This concept of leadership has been with us since the dawn of civilization: a picture of the decisive man on horseback, directing the activities of others through his superior wisdom and secure in the supreme confidence that he alone knows what ought to be done at the moment. This concept may, perhaps, be applied to the winning of a few battles of long ago, but modern knowledge is increasingly questioning its effectiveness in the everyday living of today.

Qualities of the "Great Leader." According to Posey,⁸ a political scientist who has studied the nature of leadership intensively, great leaders from Pericles or Alexander the Great to Winston Churchill or Franklin D. Roosevelt, embody certain personal characteristics or attributes: (1) a striking breadth and grasp of information, (2) clear and pronounced opinions on practically all matters, both in and outside their realms of activity, (3) strong confidence in themselves, (4) a high level of skill in self-expression, and (5) an outreaching willingness to accept responsibility.

For the most part, Posey's attributes seem desirable or at least acceptable personal qualities. It is not the nature of the leader's personality that is questioned here. It is the *role* which these personal attributes play in motion toward some worthwhile goal, in the achievement of which other human beings are expected to participate.

Since the efficacy of the traditional arbitrary role of leadership has been examined with growing scepticism, both in industry and elsewhere, several flaws in its assumed effectiveness have been revealed. In the first place, the so-called "Great

⁷ A more accurate and moving comment by the Duke was in his 1815 dispatches: "Nothing except a battle lost can be half so melancholy as a battle won."

⁸ Rollin B. Posey, Chairman, The Department of Political Science, Northwestern University, in a lecture to doctoral candidates, December 8, 1952.

"Leader" is one who well may weaken his followers because of the very fact that he is respected by them for something akin to omniscience. Acceptance of the "fact of greatness" may blind followers to reasonable criticism and often results in unthinking acquiescence. Almost inevitably the Great Leader loses perspective through the absence of the freshening stimuli of critical associates. By surrounding themselves with those who are either incapable of voicing doubts and constructive suggestions or afraid to do so, such leaders may well be paving the road to their own ultimate ruin.

Secondly, there is the ever-present danger that the Great Leader, as he accepts the myth of his infallibility, may tend to blame circumstances, such as inadequate subordinates or "just plain bad luck," for his own faulty planning. Materials published since World War II⁹ suggests that this problem beset Adolf Hitler, especially after his "spectacular victories in Europe in 1940-1941 convinced [him] that in his grasp of military and strategic questions he was superior to his generals."¹⁰ Forester¹¹ also has concluded, after careful study, that more than a century earlier Bonaparte was beaten, in part at least, because of an analogous loss of perspective with regard to his personal limitations.

Finally, in this critical look at the Great Leader, it seems reasonable to point out that a "strong man" rarely dares tolerate rival leaders, even though they may be loyal followers, who are accorded acclaim comparable to his own. Thus there is created the dilemma of the follower whose experiences qualify him but poorly to succeed to a leadership role precisely because he has been so well trained to follow orders. Small wonder that the political or financial empires of many Great Leaders have tended to unravel within a few years after the leaders' deaths.

⁹ Felix Gilbert (ed.) "Hitler's Secret Records, Unpublished Stenographic Reports of Hitler's Talks with His Generals," *The Atlantic Monthly*, 186:29-34, October, 1950, and subsequent issues. (Also, cf. Gilbert's book, *Hitler Directs His War*, Oxford University Press, 1951.)

¹⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 29.

¹¹ C. S. Forester, "Could Napoleon Have Won?" *The Atlantic Monthly*, 190: 37-42, November, 1952.

Emerging Interpretations of Leadership. It is not only because of the problems and dilemmas inherent in authoritarianism as suggested above that concepts of educational leadership are changing. Democratic values and processes, as they have been refined and modified through our country's more than one hundred and seventy-five years' experience with them, strongly urge a radically different concept of the role of leadership. As Hopkins pointed out some years ago, "The outstanding characteristic of the democratic process is the emphasis placed on *cooperative social action*."¹² In other words, there are serious inconsistencies between this authoritarian concept and the chosen way of life in America. It is vital in the interests of a strong democracy that leadership be *a process in which the persons concerned and affected by decisions share in the process of shaping them*. A clarified perspective of democracy demands cooperative interaction within a social group.

Consider for a moment the merits of the Wellingtonian idea that great leaders are developed through making individual decisions as on the playing fields of Eton. Contrast this, then, with the homely but insightful comment attributed to Carl Sandburg: "Everybody is smarter than anybody." The former represents the time-honored (but, perhaps, time-worn) notion that leadership is developed independently of the group to which it is to be applied, and is a force exerted from *outside* the group. Sandburg's idea sharply points up the fact that "in union there is strength"; this is the view that collective intelligence, achieved by interaction, is superior to that of any one member of the group.

Years ago Follett¹³ developed a "human equation" which has a bearing on the interpretation of leadership as it is being developed here. She stated that there is a "circular response" in human interaction which she phrased as "I-plus-you reacting to you-plus-me." In her conception there is a basic fact of creative leadership, namely, that the psychological behavior of each

¹² L. Thomas Hopkins, *Interaction: The Democratic Process* (Boston, D. C. Heath and Co., 1941), p. 6. (Italics in the original.)

¹³ M. P. Follett, *Creative Experience* (New York, Longmans, Green and Co., 1924). Cf. pp. 53-77.

individual is influenced by his constructive, mutually beneficial interaction with other humans in his environment. In creative educational leadership a deliberate effort is made to recognize the existence of the circular response and to employ it wisely in reaching the best possible decisions of which such interaction is capable.

LEADERSHIP AS A GROUP FUNCTION

The "groupness" of leadership has been well defined by Pigors, a sociologist, as "a process of mutual stimulation which, by the successful interplay of relevant individual differences, controls human energy in pursuit of a common cause."¹⁴ In such a definition, leadership is conceived as a *function*, to be exercised and contributed by anyone who possesses the requisite capabilities in a given situation. This view is in opposition to the concept of "status" leadership, in which an individual assumes permanently the role of director of group action. It also is consistent with Follett's idea of circular response.

The Group Leadership Idea. In this context, a leader may be described as one who assumes the responsibility for guiding group action to the end that the results are satisfactory to all. If one individual in the group possesses the necessary skill to provide the others with such service, it is expected that he will be looked upon as a leader during the period of his contribution. This may be considered as the *leadership of merit*. In the process of group interaction, then, many persons momentarily may be leaders as they contribute ideas that lead to the attainment of shared goals or to the solution of common problems.

By application of the above analysis to public school situations, the following definition may be derived: *Creative educational leadership is the guidance of the cooperative process of using individual and group power of school and community in order to develop socially desirable learning experiences for children and youth.* Thus, creative educational leadership is con-

¹⁴ Paul Pigors, *Leadership or Domination* (New York, Houghton, Mifflin Co., 1935), p. 16.

ceived as a *group function* aimed at the improvement of educational opportunity, self-realization of growing citizens, and as a means of *community* improvement. It should be noted that emphasis is placed not merely upon improving the environment for learning or the "product" goal of skills and facts. Stress is also placed upon the process values of enriched learning experiences for *all* persons associated with the educational program, including school staff, parents, and other members of the community.

Creative educational leadership is substantially more than the efficient administrative-supervisory execution of school board policies. It is a group function and a group process in effective school-policy making in which the administrative officials participate but in which they do not control or pre-determine the outcomes.

Group Leadership As an American Tradition. "Leadership as a cooperative group process" is a phrase which is freighted with special meaning, hence, unless carefully interpreted may become mere "pedaguese," the jargon of educators which often conceals much more than it reveals. To clarify meaning, it may be pointed out that the idea underlying leadership as a group process and function dates back in American history to a more simple era, in which the town meeting, as in New England, was a source of direction for the social and political life of the times.

In the town meeting, residents met periodically to consider how to reach and carry out decisions on matters which affected community living: the question of where to dig a village well, employing and arranging to "board out" the schoolmaster, or replacing the leaky roof on the town hall. Anyone who had a thought as to how a job might be done was free to express his ideas with the knowledge that they would receive the consideration they merited. "Leadership as a group process" in education likewise reflects the idea that anyone connected with the work of the schools should be free to voice his views with the knowledge that they will be respected, and, if meritorious, be accepted.

In a reversal of Gresham's Law that bad money drives out

good money, the group leadership concept stands for the idea that *good thinking drives out mediocre thinking*. That is, as a school staff thinks and plans together in an atmosphere of mutual trust, confidence, and respect, the best thinking of all will influence group behavior and shape wholesome decisions. Conversely, proposals reflecting second-rate thinking will fall by the wayside.

In creative educational leadership one finds the important postulate that education can be improved best by the leadership of *ideas and values*, rather than leadership by *rank or position*. One test of an effective leader, therefore, may well be the quality of the persons he can find and retain as his associates.

Values Inherent in the Group Leadership Concept. However appealing and consistent with principles of democratic action "leadership as a function of the group" may appear, its real test is in its practical values. There are, fortunately, a number of clearly demonstrable values which support the group leadership approach.

(1) When a group turns its creative power to the problem of school policy making, there is a much greater chance that a reasonably complete inventory of possible solutions will be made than if one or a few individuals undertake to do all the thinking.

(2) The morale of the group is strengthened when each member feels that his ideas are sought, welcomed, and respected.

(3) There is greater support for administrators in the execution of policies which are the result of cooperative deliberation rather than administrative edict. They are thought of as "our" policies rather than "his." By the same token, staff members are committed to the support of policies they have helped to formulate.

(4) There is greater understanding of school policies, and they are carried out with more sympathy and initiative, when the staff has shared in reaching the decisions by which they are expected to abide.

(5) The individual staff member is strengthened in the prac-

tice as well as the theory of democracy through participation in formulating policy.

(6) Since the behavior of the individual is the sum of the values which are shaped by his experiences, a teacher is more likely to work democratically with children in the classroom when the school as a whole is permeated with the cooperative approach to problems of common concern.

(7) Public relations are strengthened significantly in schools where the group leadership approach is accepted. Teachers generally can interpret most intelligently to parents those practices and conditions which they have helped to shape.

The participation of parents and other citizens in the planning of school policies is implied in the concept of leadership being identified here. Parent-community participation is of value not only as a means to stimulate parental insights; it also is the beneficiary of all of the seven preceding values.

The Leadership Role of the Administrator. So much emphasis has been placed on leadership as a group function that it is reasonable to inquire at this point, "What constitutes the role of the superintendent and/or the principal in the group situation?" Pigors defines leadership as a "process," and ideally it may be so considered. However, groups do not function without the leadership of *people*, and it is logical to assume that the person who will most actively support group leadership will be the titular head of the school.

As a matter of fact, it is a central thesis of this book that the most promising programs for children and youth will emerge only as the administrator voluntarily and enthusiastically accepts the responsibility of rising to the challenge to free teachers so that they may contribute creatively to the leadership process. The shift is *not* away from his traditional responsibility to the staff, but only away from the particular kind of arbitrary leadership formerly associated with authoritarian administrative practices. Also, there is a trend away from making the principal or superintendent the recipient of all responsibility, blame, and credit, and toward democratic sharing of responsibility by all.

When an administrator willingly accepts this newer concept

of group leadership, his responsibilities increase in both kind and quality. His task is increased at least by the following:

(1) It is expected that different groups of teachers will be found to possess in varying degrees the requisite skills for dealing effectively with the group process. If all teachers have had long experience in school situations where they have been accustomed to following the dictates of the administrator, it is logical to assume that the leader may have considerable difficulty in cumulatively raising the level of democratic participation skills. He will need to work cautiously and carefully in introducing change so that the teachers' security is not threatened by a totally foreign approach to the solution of problems. On the other hand, if the teachers have had many years of successful experience in solving problems cooperatively, his leadership function will be radically different. The administrator's role is, then, often determined by the level of readiness of the group to assume its share of responsible participation in the processes involved.

(2) If the administrator is to assume an effective role in the group, he must possess to a high degree the important skills of group discussion leadership. He must know how to work sincerely, honestly, and sensitively with every member so that the latent creative power of all is freed.¹⁵ In this very important respect, the success of the group will be determined in no small degree by his level of competence in group discussion leadership.

(3) Most important of all, the administrator has, perhaps, the greatest contribution to make as an individual member of the group. His *status* makes his influence greatly out of proportion to his membership. Others will, in many instances, tend to accept his actions, to adopt his procedures, or to follow his lead in the way he attempts to contribute to group thinking. This places a heavy responsibility on the administrator so to conduct himself that he exemplifies desirable educational and democratic values. More specifically, he should reflect in his be-

¹⁵ An excellent guide for discussion leaders is: William E. Utterback, *Decision Through Discussion* (New York, Rinehart and Co., 1950).

havior: sound human *values*, a high type of professional *literacy*, a wholesome, well adjusted *personality*, and an outlook on life that is *psychologically secure*. This is his contribution to the success of the group—the demonstration of the leadership of merit at its best.

THE PROMISE AND PROBLEMS OF GROUP PROCESSES

It is not the writers' purpose at this point to attempt to present in detail the techniques and procedures in group processes, but to point to some of the sources which may be consulted by one seeking to become familiar with the projects and viewpoints already described in the literature. Wiles¹⁶ has already delineated interactive processes as they apply to groups of teachers attempting to arrive at cooperative agreements. Miel¹⁷ and her associates have shown how cooperative procedures operate within the classroom as the teacher works with children. Sharp¹⁸ and Krug¹⁹ have explained the function of leadership in curriculum construction, while Yauch²⁰ has applied the principles to the elementary school principalship. Shane and McSwain²¹ have written at length on the cooperative approach to evaluation of the school program.

Group Leadership and Group Processes. Here the concern is with generalizing in terms of a growing body of knowledge bearing on group processes. In every case where they have been carefully and sensitively applied, the results have confirmed

¹⁶ Kimball Wiles, *Supervision for Better Schools* (New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1950).

¹⁷ Alice Miel and Associates, *Cooperative Procedures in Learning* (New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1952).

¹⁸ George Sharp, *Curriculum Development as Re-education of the Teacher* (New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1951).

¹⁹ Edward A. Krug, *Curriculum Planning* (New York, Harper and Brothers, 1950).

²⁰ Wilbur A. Yauch, *Improving Human Relations in School Administration* (New York, Harper and Brothers, 1949).

²¹ Harold G. Shane and E. T. McSwain, *Evaluation and the Elementary Curriculum* (New York, Henry Holt and Co., 1951), Chap. 13.

their promise. The successes attained through cooperative leadership procedures depend largely upon the extent to which administrators understand the deeper meaning and values involved. Essentially, there are two important aspects of group processes which need to be kept in mind: (1) the skills, procedures, and behaviors of all members of the group as they work for consensus, and (2) the dynamic role of leadership as it attempts to facilitate the group process in achieving satisfactory solutions to problems. It is the maintaining of a suitable balance between freeing group skills and contributing effective administrative participation which provides the key to success.

Potential Problems for Educational Leadership Which Reside in Group Processes.

Before expressing unqualified enthusiasm for group sharing of responsibilities in educational policy making, one must recognize that administrators are inviting new problems as well as disposing of some old ones. It has been said with some reason that democratic action is less efficient, more time consuming, and sometimes an utterly confusing procedure when contrasted with authoritarian methods. To deny some of these allegations would be to ignore reality. Many are the people who have engaged enthusiastically in what seemed to be better ways of working together only to turn away in sorrow and disappointment when the desired outcomes were not immediately forthcoming. In order to forestall some of this unfortunate reaction the following three basic difficulties in group processes are frankly recognized, while some suggestions of how they may be avoided are proposed.

(1) *The problem of getting interaction to eventuate in action.* It sometimes seems that the easiest part of the democratic process is that of securing group agreement, even though this stage may present many difficult problems. It may take a great deal of time for members of a group to obtain consensus, but even when that has been consummated, a *group* is not in a particularly advantageous position to put it into action. There is always the difficult factor of individual differences, both in interpretation of what has been decided and in understanding its implications for the individual's own actions. And all

action must always be implemented by one or more individuals.

The theoretical solution to this problem lies in the skill of leadership in, first, keeping members of the group aware there must be follow-up action once a decision is reached. Following success in this, it needs to be clearly understood that taking action in implementing group decisions may be delegated to the administrator. It is also his special responsibility to grasp the import of group agreements and to help individual members clarify their understanding of its implications for their work.

Perhaps the greatest danger to a group process lies in the activity remaining at the discussion level—giving substance to the accusation that democracy is merely analogous to the activities of a debating society. The second danger lies in the time necessary for members of a group to arrive at any agreements concerning what should be done to carry out a decision. If individual differences are to be respected and cherished, a group must be provided with ample time to arrive leisurely at a point of agreement, in which all relevant differences are represented and involved. Once this is done, however, administrators must have considerable freedom to carry out ideas, or to arrange for others to do so, subject to reasonable review by the group as a whole. Without vigorous follow-up action, democratic planning becomes meaningless.

(2) *The problem of avoiding domination by the small majority.* It has been deeply imbedded in the minds of many that 51% of a group should determine what the whole group shall do. In a large aggregation of individuals this may be the only practicable method of procedure available. As a people Americans have learned to accept the inevitability of this, as in national elections, and to acquiesce in what has become recognized as a spirit of fair play. However, when the group in question is small enough to permit the possibility of the gradual achievement of almost complete agreement, narrowly sustained decisions need to be avoided lest they contain the seeds of destruction of the group process. If a staff of teachers is sufficiently small to make the question of agreement at all practical, narrow majority rule may be resented by many in the

group as a form of domination only slightly less unpalatable than authoritarian edict established by the administrator alone. Pigors has defined domination as ". . . a process of control in which by the forcible assumption of authority and the accumulation of prestige a person . . . regulates the activities of others for purposes of his own choosing."²² When this domination is exerted by the majority, it may represent the same or similar outcomes as that by an individual.

Avoidance of some majority rule is probably impossible, but it is psychologically important to take time to eliminate as much disagreement as possible. This requires patience as well as time. If the leader eschews the simpler expedient of calling for a vote whenever substantial differences of opinion are present it is likely that the amount of time expended will be more than justified in the long run by the results in satisfaction on the part of the minority. Assuming that better agreement can be reached, it must be sought if the values in the group leadership concept, previously mentioned on pages 14-15, are to be achieved.

It should be apparent that one of the extremely important skills of group leadership is the ability to sense when discussion has proceeded as far as possible to insure the representation of every point of view. Generally, however, such discussion should not reach the point where members of the group begin to stir restlessly and show frustration because of their inability to move forward. In the last analysis, a small minority must not be permitted to block action by sheer intransigence. Majorities must be protected from the stubbornness of minorities just as minorities must be protected from the domination of the larger group.

(3) *The "authority/responsibility" dilemma.* Perhaps the most difficult aspect of group leadership is to be found in the confusions that reside in the dual nature of any kind of responsible leadership. In a voluntary association of individuals, meeting together for their own purposes, leadership does not face this difficulty. When a group of boys meet on Saturday morning

²² Pigors, *op. cit.*, p. 74.

to choose sides for a corner-lot baseball game, merit leadership is pretty clear. The one boy best able to lead the team to victory is recognized as the leader. He has only to serve the purposes of the group he leads. His success depends entirely upon the degree to which he is able to get all members to work harmoniously for a clear-cut goal.

Leadership in educational circles does not enjoy the luxury of working in such a clearly defined relationship. In the first place, education is a state function, discharged through various legal agencies to which aspects of the total responsibility are delegated: state department of education, local board of education, and finally the superintendent of schools. As the powers of the state are delegated to a subordinate group, certain responsibilities are reserved so that only partial authority is passed on. The amount and kind of authority finally delegated to the individual superintendent and building principal are, to some degree, arbitrarily determined for them. To say this is not to imply a criticism of our present system of legal relationships in education, but merely to point out the limited area of freedom in which the local educational leader must operate.

Contrasted to this delegated authority from the state, community, and local board of education is the authority which the educational leader must accept which stems directly from the cooperative decisions of the group which he attempts to lead. He is, at one and the same time, responsible to the legal agencies above him, and responsible to the staff for decisions it reaches. It does not take much imagination to recognize that herein lies a source of potentially critical problems.

Ways of avoiding or diminishing this problem may be found in, first, a clear understanding and acceptance of the validity of each source of authority. Second, it is necessary that the administrator be sufficiently informed of the extent and degree of legal limitations which are rightfully placed on him and the teacher group. A prosaic example of this can be found in many state laws governing certification. However strongly the staff may feel about the proper assignment of one of its members, the validity of the certificate held will determine the extent to

which the teachers may execute their desires. A first grade teacher may *not* teach a secondary school subject without proper certification, no matter how much evidence can be collected to prove that she is the very best person available for the job. The leader can avoid much misunderstanding if the teacher group understands the system of limitations within which it begins its deliberations. A clear definition of the areas of freedom is mandatory if misunderstandings are to be avoided.

The leader himself must recognize that he is acting in a dual capacity which may sometimes prove momentarily confusing, both to him and to the staff. Part of the time he must speak with authority as a representative of the legal agency—the board of education—which he serves. At another time, he must speak with equal authority as a representative of the teaching staff. It will not be easy for him to play this dual role with clarity and decisiveness at all times, but it is clear that his success is largely determined by his ability to do so more and more expertly.

A school staff must learn to recognize with sympathy, understanding, and mature attitudes the authority/responsibility dilemma of the administrator. In utilizing group processes he has elected to share his legal authority with the teachers. But, he cannot legally share his personal responsibility for the decisions reached as regards policy. Only he, personally and individually, is accountable to the board, community, and state. The staff must, therefore, be considerate and certain that the administrator is not embarrassed by a *group* decision for which he is *individually* responsible, and which he is accepting in spite of his inclination. When such a situation arises further study is in order under normal circumstances.

THE ROLE OF LEADERSHIP AS A VARIABLE IN EDUCATION

Much of the literature on leadership is concerned with the descriptions of what it is and what it does at the level of perfection. If all leaders were perfect, and all members of the

group would proceed to behave as the descriptions indicate, there would be no problem to solve other than those which a group faces. Problems inherent in the process itself would not exist.

The Nature of Creative Leadership as Unique to the Leader's Maturity. That such is not the case in reality probably can be attested by anyone who has had experience in administration. Since leaders are people, it is apparent that they will be subject to all known human frailties. As organic human material it is expected that the leader constantly will be in a state of evolutionary personal-developmental change. Unless one is to hold the highly dubious view that leadership qualities are inborn, it is necessary to assume that a good leader must, of necessity, grow in stature and competence *in the process of leading*. Therefore, it is safe to assume that a leader will vary in his abilities directly with his unique developmental status at a particular time.

Recognition of this fact leads to the conclusion that, in general, three levels of leadership contributions may be identified: (1) the actions and contributions of *potential* leaders, or those who are just beginning to act in that capacity, (2) the role of *maturing* leadership, or those who are already in leadership positions and are attempting to perfect their skills, and (3) the role of the *mature* leader as one who has finally achieved maximum success in working with a group. The third level of competence may be described as follows:

THE PERSONAL AND PROFESSIONAL COMPETENCIES OF THE
MATURE LEADER

The creative educational leader:

- (1) Possesses a practical, democratic philosophy which is applied in his relationships with others.
- (2) Develops a grasp of the principles of human learning, growth and development which sensitizes him to the maturational needs of children, youth, and adults.
- (3) Attains emotional and intellectual security reflected in a quality of personal living consistent with good mental hygiene.

- (4) Has a belief in the importance of group processes, cooperative group decisions, and group action.
- (5) Has personal honesty and integrity which governs his thinking and behavior with regard to sincerity, courage, and candor.
- (6) Reflects the desire to improve his personal resources, including skills in group interaction and action.
- (7) Possesses a growing general cultural background which is improved methodically and deliberately.
- (8) Displays increasing ability to interpret and contribute to his school-community environment.
- (9) Applies a growing talent for using, without exploitation, the human and material resources of his environment which help children and adults to meet personal, social, and integrative needs.
- (10) Consistently engages in acceptable recreational activities which satisfy his personality needs and often help to meet those of his associates.
- (11) Is increasingly well-informed with regard to social, political, and economic trends which enable him to contribute to his community environment.
- (12) Participates in social consequential adult activities, both civic and professional.
- (13) Is actively aware of the significance of, and has faith in, education as an indispensable element in a strong democratic form of social organization.
- (14) Has physical health and motivation which are mirrored in vigorous working habits.
- (15) Has ability in self-expression which is essentially sound and free of demagoguery.

In studying the above competencies and skills, one may well be struck by the magnitude of the task of mature leadership. But there is no reason to feel overwhelmed. The above attributes represent the ultimate goal toward which leadership must work if it is to be worthy of the designation "creative." In reaching upward for attainment of the goals, it is recognized that the two previous levels of competency—"potential" and "maturing"—are indispensable rungs in the ladder.

The *potential* leader may be identified as one who intel-

lectually and ethically commits himself to achieving to the best of his ability the qualities of leadership, but has a long way to go in attaining them. He may even be recognized as one who is still somewhat uncertain of the meanings of the competencies of the mature leader, but nonetheless has the spirit and courage to learn. In a phrase, he is at the point where he is attempting to test the hypotheses of creative, contributive leadership.

The *maturing* educational leader is one who has already confirmed through experience that there is something to the idea of democratic action, has had his basic faith substantiated by concrete results, but is still growing in his understandings and in his skills in guiding the process toward greater success. He may be identified as one who has matured sufficiently in experience to recognize that the process is complex but feasible. He is on his way to becoming a mature leader.

The Role of Leadership as Unique to Situations. It may appear from the foregoing pages that the whole weight of responsibility for the success of a group falls solely on the shoulders of the leader. Such is not the case. Regardless of the adequacy of his skills, effective action depends equally on the maturity of all members of a given group. Teachers of long service in an authoritarian atmosphere, regardless of how professionally prepared and personally mature they may be, will almost certainly respond to democratic leadership in an immature fashion at first. A mature leader may be instrumental in speeding up the process of group growth, but the growth potential of the various members will control the rate. *Leaders must recognize that group procedures need to be adapted to fit the degree of readiness of the staff to engage in them.*

At the other extreme of the maturity-immaturity scale one may find a staff which has had long and meaningful experience in working cooperatively. This group may well be able to understand and live by the concepts of group leadership, even under the uninspired administrative official. Such a group of teachers reflects competence in cooperative leadership which no longer depends primarily on the guidance of one person. It has, in

fact, reached that level of group action wherein leadership has truly become a "group function."

The variations in relationships between maturity in leadership and staff in employing group processes are quite extensive. More will be said of this factor in subsequent chapters of the book. The concern here is that the variable in group atmosphere and levels of readiness for successful participation be recognized as elements which make the role of the leader unique in each situation. "Good" leadership will be somewhat different in a school with predominantly inexperienced teachers, in a school where the staff is mature but accustomed to arbitrary direction, and in a school where the staff is already wise in the ways of reaching cooperative decisions.

SUMMARY

Public education in the United States has a deep-rooted and proud tradition of creative leadership. The public school idea was a product of the minds of men and women with vision and courage. It stands as an example of bold lay leadership dating from colonial times and from the early years of the Republic. This creative leadership saw, with almost preternatural clarity, the importance of free schools to the integrity of political institutions, religious values, and the American dream of the right of childhood to the opportunity for self-realization and an earned measure of material well-being.

Over the years, and particularly in more recent decades, professional workers in education have come to recognize that creative leadership is not the sole prerogative of the few presumably gifted individuals who are granted authoritarian powers. Rather, it is a group function which involves the freeing of creative power through interaction, decision, and action. Leadership, thus, is identified with group processes to which administrators contribute to the extent that the merit of their ideas and suggestions pass coinage in the "free market of ideas."

Participation by lay members of the community also was recognized as having a place in the framework of educational

planning. This harks back to the town meetings of an earlier era as a basic source of cooperative leadership.

The last part of the chapter developed the point that creative educational leadership may be manifested in many ways, and, indeed, *must* function in many ways because it seeks unique, creative solutions to educational problems. Likewise, the level of maturity of teachers and administrators varies from school to school, and from year to year within a given school. This suggests that the interpretation given to the concept of leadership as a group function will depend upon analysis of the extent to which a staff is prepared psychologically to assume responsibility for self-direction.

The chapters in *Creative School Administration* which follow are concerned with implementing the creative approach to leadership. Administrative and organizational procedures, while they are explored and discussed comprehensively, are considered as means of illustrating good leadership at work, not as absolutes or ends in themselves. An effort is made throughout to stress the viewpoint that the administrator, be he principal or superintendent, who seeks to refine the quality of the educational program, is a *means to more significant learning for children*, and an instrument to free teachers so that they are *better able to acquit themselves in carrying out their important responsibility to children and the community*.

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CHAPTER TWO

THE EDUCATIONAL LEADER AND HIS VALUES



ONE of the most important elements in the broad field of educational leadership is among the least frequently considered. This element is the nature and quality of the set of values which motivates the staff as a whole and the administrator in particular in their relationships among themselves and with other human beings.

Because of the myriad of problems and concerns which are a part of the daily life of the administrator, he is called upon at frequent intervals to make decisions. Whether he is aware of it or not, these decisions involve **value judgments**: judgments which are based upon the experience he has had; experiences which have shaped the sum of his values, his character, his outlook on life.

Sound judgment which reflects socially desirable educational values is a quality to be sought and prized above all others in educational leadership. Despite the difficulty in dealing with the subject of values—those intangible well-springs of human behavior—an effort is made in the following pages to suggest how the leader can understand better their nature and importance. From such a study it is hoped that he may be able to develop a greater insight into the quality and direction of his professional life and growth.

SOURCES OF DIRECTION FOR EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

Man's chief purpose in life, according to Lewis Mumford, is the creation and preservation of sound values. It is the process of creating socially desirable values, he contends, which gives meaning both to civilization and to the individual human life.

The educational leader is one of the persons in American life who has a peculiarly important role in the development, strengthening, and transmission of values. His relationships with the school staff, with children, or with members of the community, provide unique opportunities and obligations to define that which is "good" in the culture and to help coming generations to share in the "good life."

Administrators inevitably encounter the perplexing problems of which value patterns they shall seek to strengthen as they work with parents and teachers. While nearly everyone probably would agree with Lewis Mumford's point that sound values should be developed, disagreement creeps in when it is necessary to define what values are "sound." It becomes imperative, therefore, for the leader in public education to examine what he believes is wholesome from among divergent and sometimes conflicting values which abound in any community, no matter how homogeneous the backgrounds of the residents may seem to be.

Some Familiar Source-of-Direction for Leadership. Many of the values which are individually and collectively held by Americans have been inherited from a great variety of sources. Throughout life the individual accumulates these values, accepting, discarding, refining, and modifying them as they seem to fit in and support his drives, purposes, and desires. Some values are deeply rooted in human emotional systems, firmly implanted by parental precept, by community mores, or perchance by early traumatic experiences. Others are acquired through intellectual study, rational consideration, or deliberate choice in later life. Whatever the source, experiences have

shaped the individual's values in the form they presently take, complete with all their divergencies and inconsistencies.

Since value sources have been explored elsewhere in the literature,¹ and because of the need to keep this chapter of manageable length, they will merely be summarized and presented diagrammatically in Figure 1. Sources of value may be classified so as to include:

- (1) *The classical tradition.* If a viewpoint is old enough, particularly if it has been immortalized by appearing in one of the "Great Books," it has a tendency to hold a preferred position in the value patterns of many persons. As is noted in the Chapman translation of Nietzsche's *Human, All Too Human*: "Every tradition grows ever more venerable—the more remote is its origin, the more confused that origin is. The reverence due to it increases from generation to generation. The tradition finally becomes holy and inspires awe."
- (2) *Religious authoritarianism.* The teachings of the church have exerted tremendous influence in deciding what we shall call "good." Reference to the Scriptures, the Talmud, or the Koran are customarily used by many as a means of making everyday decisions.
- (3) *Science and research.* The advent of modern science has literally changed the behavior of millions of people. Advertising has used the appeal of this value-source with great success.
- (4) *The hearthside.* What we have learned at our mother's knee and around the home deeply affects our everyday behavior.
- (5) *The market place.* American business practice, in the minds of many people, represents a measure of goodness. If an act brings greater wealth or greater esteem, it is highly valued.
- (6) *Free enterprise.* Although difficult to define, Americans, among others, reserve a high place for individual competition and the right to "make an honest buck."
- (7) *The "gentleman."* This source is closely aligned with the

¹ Harold G. Shane and E. T. McSwain, *Evaluation and the Elementary Curriculum* (New York, Henry Holt and Co., 1951), pp. 79-87.

classical tradition, but it is further supported by our tendency to look with particular favor on those who are able to live a life of wealth and ease. The concept of the elite "400" epitomizes this value.

- (8) *National heroes.* Idealization of the role of individual men in the success of a country explains some of the more important and vital values held by the people of that country.

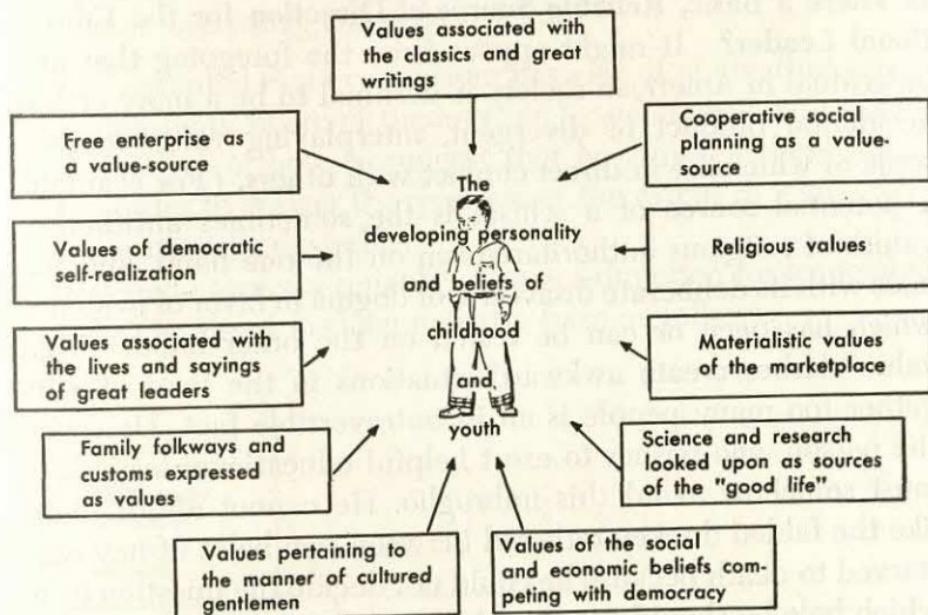


FIG. 1. A sampling of representative values which bear on the development of human personality.

- (9) *Socio-political beliefs.* On a nation-wide basis, each country tends to represent one of the major political and social positions: democracy, fascism, socialism, communism, etc. Each belief is based on a cluster of values which supports and sustains a given position. Merely living in a particular country often provides one with a set of nationalistic values which are uncritically accepted.

The individual in American society is undoubtedly affected by all of these sources. As he develops and matures, his person is permeated by first one and then another of these, so that his developing being is a composite of the total. Some sources have

greater influence than others, and the totality of the value patterns of each individual is at least slightly different from that of all others. Yet it is unlikely that the influence of any one of the value-sources listed would fail to leave its impress on any person. Although the situation is oversimplified by the following figure, it represents a general picture of the way in which the young in American culture are bombarded by the radiations of value-sources.

Is There a Basic, Reliable Source-of-Direction for the Educational Leader? It might appear from the foregoing that any individual in American society is destined to be a more or less accidental product of divergent, interplaying value sources, some of which are in direct conflict with others. (For example, a potential source of a schism is the sometimes antithetical values of religious authoritarianism on the one hand, and science with its deliberate disavowal of dogma in favor of evidence which has been or can be tested on the other hand.) That value clashes create awkward situations in the lives of altogether too many people is an incontrovertible fact. However, the person who wishes to exert helpful educational leadership must somehow avoid this imbroglio. He cannot afford to be like the fabled donkey tethered between two bales of hay who starved to death because he could not decide the question as to which bale he should eat first. A consistent and sound sense of direction also is an important requisite if one is to avoid the hazards of mental ill-health.

It is incumbent upon the educational leader to examine the precise values which motivate his conduct, to make choices between and among conflicting values, and to stand upon the solid ground which represents a clear, unequivocal position in regard to what he believes is "good." Without having examined what he believes in and why, he is forever handicapped in decision-making; ambivalent—stuck on "dead-center."

The need for a sense of direction is complicated by the present tendency in certain parts of the United States to look with some suspicion upon the person who takes a stand. Teachers, and particularly administrators, are often expected to be impossibly neutral in the war of ideas lest they "indoctrinate"

those for whom they are responsible. The Board of Education in New York City has recognized this difficulty and has clearly stated:

As a well-informed, active, intelligent citizen, the teacher cannot and should not be neutral, but must be fair. No one can expect a teacher to pass through scenes of raging controversy with a serene curiosity, a suspended judgment, and a pair of white gloves. It is inhuman to assume that our instructors must "know everything and believe nothing."²

If it is granted that every leader has a set of motivating values (whether he is aware of them or not), one confronts the practical question of how to suggest that he appraise these mindsets in order to answer the question of the extent to which they are educationally desirable.

In general terms, a reliable source-of-direction for leadership may be expressed in diagrammatic form as follows:

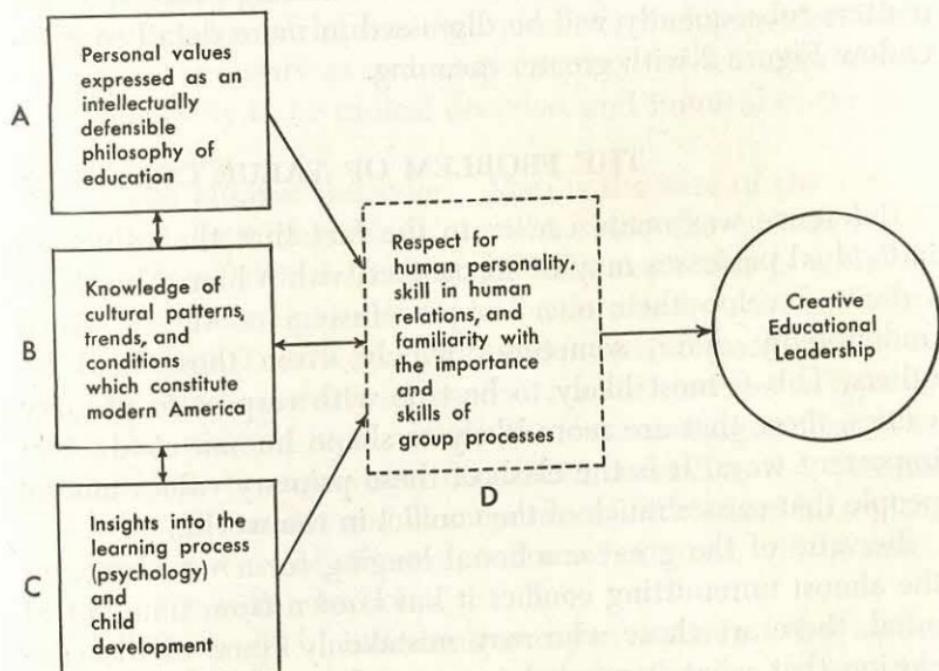


FIG. 2. Diagram suggesting a desirable source-of-direction for effective educational leadership.

² New York City Board of Education, *A Guide Book for Teachers* (New York, The Board of Education, 1952).

In the diagram above, it is assumed that there are three broad areas of developmental insights interplaying in the life of the individual (A, B, C). The leader must be a reasonably informed student of educational philosophy, of psychology and child development, and of American culture. As he expands his knowledge and insight into these fields, each interacting with one another, he develops an understanding of and an appreciation for the importance of the individual, and the ways by which individuals can work together harmoniously (D). These understandings and appreciations are resources in that they provide him with a clear conception of his personal role in helping people to achieve the best that is in them. This is another way of describing what constitutes creative educational leadership as interpreted in the first chapter.

A defensible philosophy of education and suitable insights into the learning process are attained through thoughtful analysis of beliefs held by self and society and the resolution of such conflicts as are generated therein—a continuing process. These matters subsequently will be discussed in more detail so as to endow Figure 2 with greater meaning.

THE PROBLEM OF VALUE CONFLICTS

Reference was made earlier to the fact that the values an individual possesses may be in conflict within him. Also, individuals develop their own unique clusters of values which undoubtedly differ, sometimes widely, from those held by others. This is most likely to be true with respect to primary values, those that are more likely to shape human conduct in important ways. It is the clash of these primary values among people that causes much of the conflict in the world.

Because of the great emotional longing for a world free of the almost unremitting conflict it has known from time out of mind, there are those who may mistakenly come to the conclusion that what is needed is a complete elimination of all major differences in values. A moment's thought should suffice to indicate that, while this would certainly simplify some of the difficult problems of living, it would concurrently produce

an ineffably pedestrian world. And progress in the direction of further improving and refining values would inevitably be hampered, if it did not entirely grind to a halt. As Thomas Mann noted in Chapter VI of *The Magic Mountain*, "Opinions cannot survive if one has no chance to fight for them."

Many values which are cherished today were at one time held by a small minority of people. One does not need to reach far back in history to recall the time when the espousal of democracy was considered by many people to be the mark of a "dangerous radical," since such espousal was considered a direct threat to the security and dominance of the economically and religiously privileged. Other examples of major values at one time considered dangerous heresy are taken for granted now in the form of child labor laws, the right of labor to organize for its own welfare, the right of women to have a voice in government, the right of the people to be protected by federal legislation from dangerous foods and drugs, and the protection of life and limb by safety regulations. In each case, the important value of human rights was first championed by a courageous minority as an unpopular cause which was dubbed by the majority to be radical doctrine, and inimical to the best interests of all.

Values and Human Behavior. Man is the sum of the experiences that have shaped his values, since the values which motivate him are the bases of his behavior.³ This is certainly true of teachers and educational leaders as it is for all other human beings. *Teachers cannot be expected to teach more than they are—and educational leaders cannot exercise a type of leadership that is higher than their motivating values.* The administrator or supervisory consultant, as well as the teachers with whom he works, and in cooperation with whom he aspires to achieve a sense of direction and a set of goals, will be motivated by the values he holds.

While there will be little controversy over the fact that values determine behavior, there are marked cleavages as to *what* values shall determine *what kind* of behavior. It is an only too human conceit to assume that the values one currently holds

³ Harold G. Shane and E. T. McSwain, *op. cit.*, pp. 71-77.

are automatically the best that can be evolved. It is equally natural to assume that these values are, or at least should be, held commonly by all "right thinking" people. Marion Nesbitt probably oversimplifies the situation when she writes in her sensitively written, insightful little book:

We shall dedicate ourselves anew to the values and ideals in which we believe. *Among intelligent, sincere people of good will there is little division of opinion as to what values and what ideals contribute most to the good life.*⁴

It is probably doubtful or wishful, in view of the many heated and diverse criticisms directed at education, that one can conclude that there is "little division of opinion." Even if it is granted that the majority of citizens qualify as "intelligent, sincere people of good will," there remains great divergence of viewpoint as to the *means* that shall be used in the school to attain the end of a "good" education for children.

Conflicts Among and Between Values. The point was made earlier that within a single individual there may be in progress a silent struggle between conflicting values. It is not uncommon for one to hold that one must love his fellow man and be his brother's keeper, and yet justify by a different set of values the propriety of engaging in cut-throat, competitive business deals. Then there are Americans who have never even attempted to reconcile their belief in the value of municipally owned water supply for their community, and their violent opposition to such a nationally owned water-power supply as is represented by the TVA. The same inconsistency exists in the strong support people give to the idea that all children in the state should be guaranteed a minimum standard of education, but that this is wrong at the national level if it involves federal aid.

Value conflicts in education abound in great profusion. The XIIIth Yearbook of the John Dewey Society⁵ has suggested a few in the following excerpt:

⁴ Marion Nesbitt, *A Public School for Tomorrow* (New York, Harper and Brothers, 1953), p. 155. (Italics not in the original.)

⁵ Harold G. Shane (ed.), *The American Elementary School*, XIIIth Yearbook, the John Dewey Society (New York, Harper and Brothers, 1953), p. 390.

*Educational Values Accepted
by Many Teachers and Parents*

CHILD-ORIENTED

Children mature at different rates. Identical performance should not be expected of them; individuality should be prized.

Children should be spared the stigmatizing experience of "flunking" or repeating a grade except under unusual circumstances.

Parent-teacher conferences are an accurate means of reporting pupil progress.

Because of the normal range in children's abilities, competition in the classroom is of questionable value. Besides, the child who needs it least receives the recognition in a competitive situation. Anyway, a job should be done for its own sake, not merely to beat someone else.

The best type of discipline is self-control. Children must experience a measure of freedom and self-direction in order to develop such control, even if some noise and disorder occasionally occur.

*Sometimes Accepted by the
Same Teachers and Parents*

SUBJECT-ORIENTED

There are minimum requirements which a child must master. If he doesn't the elementary school is defaulting to the taxpayer.

"100% (continuous) promotion" is producing a "nation of Henry Aldriches." Without a carrot (promotion for good work) or a club (fear of failure), neither the gifted nor the slow maturing child is sufficiently motivated to study.

A-B-C grades *really* let you know Johnny's progress; none of this "He-is-a-well-integrated-boy" stuff for me!

Competition is basic to free enterprise, to motivation. Schools are undermining free enterprise if they eliminate competition.

Miss Basilisk really knows how to control the children! They work every minute they're under her direction—and not a peep out of them.

To confuse the issue further, not only are there conflicts between and among separate values, but these same inconsistencies may show up *within* a given cluster of related values. Consider the generally accepted value represented in education by the phrase "pupil-teacher planning." Theoretically, the function of pupil-teacher planning is to provide classroom atmosphere or "climate" in which the ideas of *all*, both pupils *and* teachers, are given a fair hearing. This end, if it is to be realized, demands genuine cooperative thinking. Actually, in many cases, what purports to be cooperative planning merely means the teacher cleverly gets children to agree to what she had previously determined that the group would do.

To take another case in point, the present enthusiasm for "core" teaching sometimes has led to assigning one teacher to two or more subjects in consecutive periods on the assumption that this would provide him with the opportunity to fuse the contents into a "one-piece" experience. In reality, it may turn out to be nothing more than a mere re-scheduling of isolated subjects taught tandem fashion.

Part of the difficulty, of course, lies in the semantic snarl in which educators have let themselves become enmeshed. Some members of the profession have fallen into the fallacy of identifying the values they seek with the words which symbolize them. Even as certain children and parents, with their deep conviction as to the importance of the *symbols* of scholastic achievement (A, B, C, D, F), confuse symbol and substance, so do such teachers and educational leaders often transfer their values from the abstract idea to the symbol which represents the idea. The parent whose first question at report-card time is, "How many A's did you get, Billy?" or the lad who bursts into the house shouting "I got three A's and a B!" illustrate the symbol-for-substance fallacy. Both have become of the persuasion that a pen scratch on paper represents an education and stands for academic growth—although the grade given may have little real bearing on the boy's true progress toward maturity.

The leader who would avoid the unhappy consequences of

this error might well engage in study of the writings and proposals of Lee,⁶ Hayakawa,⁷ Johnson,⁸ and Flesch.⁹ These semanticists are among those who recognize that sound may be substituted for substance. This misapprehension can cause real harm because acceptance of a *word* for a *reality* leads to complacency and complacency breeds stagnation or even retrogression.

How Value Conflicts Complicate Leadership in School and Community. The educational leader who wishes to develop a program of education in the community which represents the best thinking of all is immediately confronted with mutually exclusive values which must somehow be reconciled. Segments of the community may want or believe they want some or all of the following:

- a program in which children and youth learn to compete in a dog-eat-dog world (yet respect others, learn how to share, and to help their neighbors).
- a program in which children and youth are loyal to America and its traditions and feel that it is the greatest country in the world (but appreciate the contributions and rights of others in "one world").
- a program in which children and youth are beneficiaries of personal-social development and self-realization in an environment conducive to good mental hygiene (but are up to standard in conventional, "minimum academic essentials" regardless of individual growth patterns).
- a program in which children and youth are able to experience and express religious feelings based on faith (yet believe in the scientific method, in skepticism and suspended judgment until the facts are in).
- a program in which children and youth are equipped with the classical background of the cultured gentleman (but have many of the skills of the tradesman or craftsman).

⁶ Irving J. Lee, *Language Habits in Human Affairs* (New York, Harper and Brothers, 1941).

⁷ S. I. Hayakawa, *Language in Thought and Action* (New York, Harcourt, Brace and Co., 1949).

⁸ Wendell Johnson, *People in Quandaries* (New York, Harper and Brothers, 1946).

⁹ Rudolph Flesch, *The Art of Plain Talk* (New York, Harper and Brothers, 1946).

These are merely samples of the conflict in values which can confront the educational leader. They may be expanded into an almost limitless list, depending upon the circumstances and motivations prevalent in the individual community. It is apparent that the school is faced with an impossible task of trying to be all things to all men. Furthermore, it is inconceivable that the school can turn out children and youth who are paragons; who satisfy their parents and themselves in all respects. The mutually exclusive goals in the paragraphs on page 41 also make it impossible for the school to comply with everyone's aspirations.

Until there is some modification in the conflicting expectations which are focused on the school there will remain the

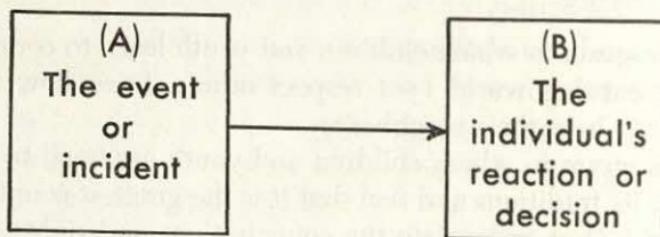


FIG. 3. The unthinking reaction.

danger that schools will do less than they can or should because they try to do too much.

The Leader and Intellectualized Values. Educational leaders have a responsibility to strip from their own thinking as best they can the inconsistencies and conflicts which also plague the people with whom they are called upon to work. This requires a concentrated examination of one's own values, with frank recognition of the conflicts which exist, and to *intellectualize* them into a coherent and unified whole.

The first step in the process involves analysis of why one acts as he does. This examination may reveal that the process is similar to that which is depicted in Figure 3.

Something happens which involves a choice or decision (A). The decision is made opportunistically on the basis of what

seems to be "good" at the time (B). The action may be automatic, habitual, or the result of a "hunch." If the outcomes are satisfactory, the individual is likely to repeat the process the next time a similar situation arises. If the reaction is unsatisfactory or unpleasant, it is likely that he will in future avoid the first response and seek another solution. In any case, the reaction or decision is made directly and unthinkingly.

Figure 4 suggests that the leader should follow the route A-A'-B in working his way toward a decision.

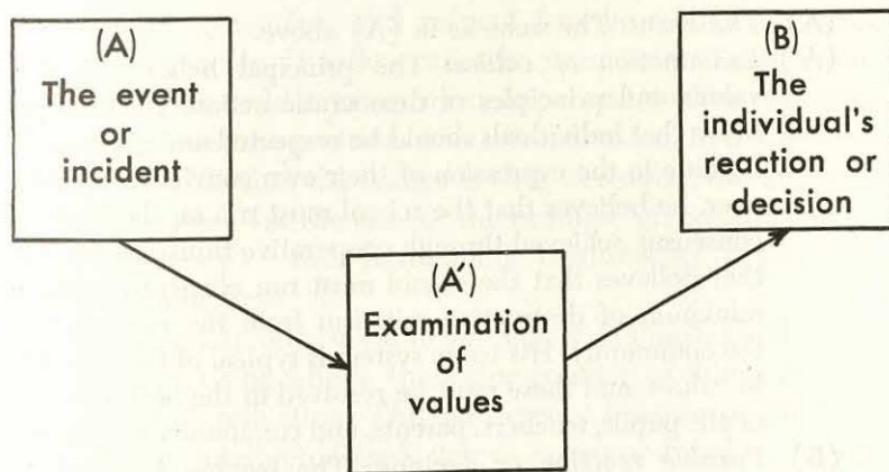


FIG. 4. The reaction based upon intellectualized values.

Here the event or incident (A) is examined in the light of socially desirable educational values (A') before the decision (B) is reached. In such a situation the leader is compelled to *examine and clarify his values* in order to follow the A-A'-B route—a process which is in itself of value. Another way of saying this is to assert that one of the desirable qualities of an educational leader is his willingness to accept the examination of one's values as an integral part of the process of decision-making.

Perhaps the illustrations of the two processes on page 44 may help to illuminate the two types of behavior that are under discussion.

The A→B Route

- (A) *The event:* In a teachers' meeting the principal expresses his belief that teachers in the elementary school should avoid the teaching of controversial issues. One teacher takes exception to this and insists that it is his obligation to teach what he thinks is best for children to know.
- (B) *Possible reaction:* The teacher is a "rebel" and should be made to conform to the decisions determined by the head of the school.

The A→A'→B Route

- (A) *The event:* The same as in (A) above.
- (A') *Examination of values:* The principal believes in the values and principles of democratic action. He also believes that individuals should be respected and given wide latitude in the expression of their own convictions. Moreover, he believes that the school must run on the basis of consensus achieved through cooperative thinking. He further believes that the school must run efficiently, with a minimum of destructive criticism from the members of the community. His value system is typical of the conflicts in values, and these must be resolved in the best interests of all: pupils, teachers, parents, and community in general.
- (B) *Possible reaction or decision:* The teacher is asked to explain more fully what he considers controversial issues, and what specifically he would propose children know about them. He is also challenged to justify what he considers "best," and how he may be sure of it. Through full and permissive discussion the ideas of the teacher have an opportunity to influence policy if they have merit, with all other teachers involved in helping to reach a desirable solution. Each individual teacher is respected for what he thinks, with all the respect for divergencies that this implies, but with the main emphasis of the principal focused on an agreed-upon policy to which every member of the faculty will subscribe in principle. Variation in practice will be expected and permitted.

As the above example suggests, it is desirable for the principal to be concerned with more than mere efficiency in management. While few will fail to sense his responsibility for the

school as a whole, and its relationship to the community, "efficiency" must be attained without penalizing individual teachers, and with the maximum degree of agreement that can be reached. To force on unwilling or unconvinced teachers a particular set of values, which are labeled as "efficient administration," usually succeeds only in impressing the staff with the authoritarian system of values adopted by the administrator.

After a principal has examined what he believes is *most* important he may conclude that efficiency *per se* is not particularly important, and that the values of free expression, coöperative agreement, and respect for the individual stand higher in the scale. It follows that he must *select* from among his values those which seem most important to him, allowing the others to assume positions of less importance. In the process, it is conceivable that the leader is able to resolve the apparent conflict in values (in the case of the example given—democracy versus efficiency) into a harmonious relationship of efficiency *through* democracy.

Leadership can only hope to succeed if the individual leader is capable of rising above the value-conflict problem through the process of reflection. This will create a sense of direction based upon intellectualized values—examined beliefs which survive the test of intelligent scrutiny.

VALUES AND EDUCATIONAL PHILOSOPHY

It is one thing to recognize that the creative administrative leader needs a body of intellectualized values, but quite another to deal with the process of building such values. The writers at this point are reminded of a fable attributed to that latter-day educational Aesop, Harold Benjamin.¹⁰

It seems that a grasshopper became concerned about the future when the summer was punctuated by the advent of frosty weather. He had stored no food and had no snug home for the winter. In some concern he went to his friends, the ants,

¹⁰ Author of *The Sabre-Tooth Curriculum*, and similar, pointed educational whimsies. The grasshopper fable is reproduced from memory since it seems that Dr. Benjamin has yet to preserve it in print. Apologies for any corruptions of the tale are herewith tendered.

and requested sanctuary for the winter season. The ants were sympathetic but unobliging. They suggested, since they had no space or supplies to spare, that the grasshopper take his problem to the near-by university. "A first-rate mental institution," said the ants, "which deals with all the problems of mankind."

The grasshopper, grateful for the suggestion, hopped in to see the university president. After listening attentively to the grasshopper's tale of woe, he sent him hopping to the home economics department, since it appeared that the problem was basically a nutritional one. The head of the home economics department, after hearing the story, felt that the problem was really a matter of supply and demand, and could more properly be dealt with by the economists in the social science department.

Even the economists were baffled by this problem, and, as a last resort, and in complete desperation, they suggested that perhaps the workshop being held in the College of Education might offer some help, since "they could handle *any* kind of problem." Here the 'hopper found a warm, friendly group atmosphere. His problem was taken under serious advisement, out of which emerged the recommendation that he become a mole for the winter, live in an underground burrow, and diet on roots and worms.

Happily convinced that his problem was solved, the grasshopper skipped merrily down the road in the frosty twilight until—horrors—it dawned on him that he had not been instructed in the art of becoming a mole. Back he came, just as the workshop director was packing up his materials until the following summer.

"Oh, sir," chirped the grasshopper, "I did forget to ask you one question. How do I *become* a mole?"

There was a long silence, broken only by muted nibblings as the director worried a ragged fingernail. At last he spoke, "Didn't you know, old boy, that we workshoppers are concerned only with the basic principles? You will have work out the details."

To avoid at least some of the "grasshopper trouble" so neatly

portrayed by Professor Benjamin, an attempt is made to propose how persons seeking the security of a sense of direction can help themselves in achieving it. Here concern is shown not only for the basic principles, but for details as well!

Divergent Values Reflected in Educational Philosophies. It has been suggested that before one can act intelligently in any given situation it is necessary to examine one's values as guides to effective action. As these values are continuously and intellectually examined in relation to decisions concerning education, it will be seen that one is constantly referring to values that are educational in nature. As these educational values are intellectualized and made into a more or less consistent body of accepted and workable principles, a philosophy of education is derived. Thus, it may be said that one's philosophy of education is an *organized expression of one's values as they relate to the decisions concerning desirable personal-social and intellectual qualities to be developed in the learner.*

Help may be attained by a systematic study of current philosophies of education as they are expressed by their chief proponents. It is possible, and often very common, for an educational leader to "adopt" a philosophy already systematically worked out by one of these people. He then becomes a member of a "school of thought," with his actions expressing allegiance to the principles of his particular adopted school. In so doing, however, it is not uncommon for him to encounter some basic inconsistencies between his accepted set of principles and those of an opposing point of view. These conflicts in philosophy have formed the major battleground of education in this country since the earliest days. Since they lie at the heart of philosophical controversy, it is essential that the educational leader effect some resolution of the conflicts in his own mind.

The basic philosophical schisms may be stated as follows:

Authoritarian vs. democratic procedures. How shall a group's work be done? Shall the leader determine the means and the ends, or shall all members of the group cooperate on deciding these issues?

Education to meet individual needs vs. education for an intel-

lectually elite. Shall the school educate everyone to the maximum of his ability, regardless of how great or small this may be, or shall high academic standards be maintained, regardless of the needs of the less able children who may fall by the wayside? *The transmission of the cultural heritage vs. concern for creating attitudes, values, and skills necessary for effective living in today's society.* While some resolution of this conflict may be effected by agreeing that the cultural heritage and skills of effective living are not necessarily mutually exclusive, there still remains the important question of emphasis and the fundamental choice as to the balance to be struck between the two. *Learning through active, direct experiences vs. passive book-learning.* Again, the conflict may be more apparent than real, but the leader must choose in terms of emphasis and direction. Modern psychology has much to offer on this score. (Cf. Chapter Nine)

The school as a dynamic force in community improvement vs. the school as mirror of well-established mores and beliefs. In a dynamic society it is inevitable that there be a direct clash on this point. A changing society is constantly severing its links with some aspects of the past. Shall the school side with forces working to maintain the status quo, or shall it seek to "design tomorrow"? If the latter, are teachers as a group capable of meeting such a challenge? Also, is there the danger that some schools might seek unilaterally to "design tomorrow" without recognizing that the community, too, must share in any such social reconstruction?

The reader can supply many more such dichotomies. The purpose here is not to present an exhaustive list, but merely to point out that they exist.¹¹ Prospective and current educational leaders would do well to make a study of the literature in order to become fully aware of the fundamental choices which must be made.¹² It may be decided by the maturing educational

¹¹ For a particularly well-elaborated statement of similar issues cf. L. Thomas Hopkins, *Interaction: The Democratic Process* (Boston, D. C. Heath and Co., 1941), pp. 19-39.

¹² To help the reader initiate study or refresh himself regarding philosophies of education, the following are suggested: John S. Brubacher (ed.), *Eclectic Philosophy of Education* (New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1951); William H. Kilpatrick, *Philosophy of Education* (New York, The Macmillan Co., 1951); B. O. Smith, et al., *Readings in the Social Aspects of Education* (Danville, Ill.,

leader that the typical procedure of selecting *one* philosophy to the exclusion of all others is unwise and unprofitable. Unless resolution of these conflicts is forthcoming, the leader will be eternally caught between the horns of every major philosophic dilemma, incapable of making wise and consistent decisions.

Conflicting Values Mirrored in Concepts of Educational Leadership. It is only natural to expect that the philosophic position one holds will, in large degree, influence one's conception of the good leader. In the first chapter reference was made to two opposing types of leadership—"Group Leadership" vs. the concept of the "Great Leader." The former presupposes the acceptance of a set of values which are commonly referred to as "democratic values." The latter most commonly is identified with the values of autocracy, whether benevolent or otherwise.

Strong and influential arguments are raised for each type of leadership, as is shown below:

Authoritarian values

Greater efficiency is gained in
making decisions.

Time is saved when only one person has to make up his mind.

The leader has better access to the facts than has the group.

People will act most quickly when they have someone to follow.

ETC.

Democratic values

Greater efficiency is gained in carrying out of group decisions.

Time is saved when people understand what they are to do.

Facts grow in value and importance in direct proportion to their circulation.

People will act most wisely when they are carrying out their own decisions.

ETC.

Between these two sets of opposing points of view the leader

Interstate Publishers, 1951); E. V. Sayer, *A First Course in Philosophy of Education* (New York, Henry Holt and Co., 1952); J. Donald Butler, *Four Philosophies and Their Practice in Education and Religion* (New York, Harper and Brothers, 1951). Cf. pp. 521-534 for classified bibliographic listings of philosophical writing of current interest.

is required to make some kind of choice. This can be in the direction of either autocratic direction or democratic guidance, but, in either case, the choice must be made to avoid the inconsistency and lack of real direction characterizing the opportunist who is "democratic" or "authoritarian" at the dictates of expedience.

THE LEADER AND HIS CHOICES AMONG COMPETING PHILOSOPHIES

Educational Choices. The values contrasted above oversimplify issues when they reach the practical level of decision and action. It is probably true that there never was, and it is unlikely there ever will be, a person who is totally autocratic or democratic. While every leader must make an *intellectual* and *philosophic* choice which tends toward one extreme or the other, he will find the problem much more complex and confusing at the level of action. Brameld¹³ has defined nine choices which can be made by the individual as he attempts to make decisions:

TYPE OF CHOICE	INTERPRETATION OF CHOICE
<i>Complacent</i>	Disturbances to one's beliefs or values are ignored, since any positive recognition of them would upset equilibrium and disturb complacency.
<i>Negative</i>	Beliefs are analyzed so that the individual understands that a conflict exists, but there is no constructive follow-up.
<i>Skeptical</i>	One develops a disbelief, but no constructive beliefs.
<i>Agnostic</i>	After examining beliefs one is unable to decide which is true or false. The outcome is either neutral or ambivalent.
<i>Eclectic</i>	Many different beliefs are held concurrently, with no attempt to fuse them harmoniously, often leading to inconsistencies.

¹³ Theodore Brameld, *Patterns of Educational Philosophy* (New York, World Book Co., 1950), pp. 33-34

<i>Conservative</i>	One holds rigidly to one's time-honored beliefs as the only safe harbor in a storm.
<i>Liberal</i>	Beliefs are held as tentative, subject to revision in terms of the evidence. There is gradual modification as newer ideas are accepted.
<i>Reactionary</i>	All current decisions are made as a means of getting back to the "good old days." Modern ways are a deviation from proved principles. The old way is best.
<i>Radical</i>	The world needs a housecleaning. New, even untried theories seem superior to the old, which have outlived their usefulness.

All educational leaders, as is true of all who lead, are influenced in their behavior by one or more of the above procedures in making choices. Their decisions concerning techniques of leadership, their relations and responsibilities to the group, are modified by understanding of the method used in making choices.

It should be clear that the items in the above list are not necessarily mutually exclusive. One type shades into another, with a considerable amount of overlapping. The first four represent an essentially negative type of leadership, and the last four are usually mutually antagonistic. Only the eclectic choice has the capacity of including all others, but with the unfortunate consequences which should be apparent to all. By and large, the "liberal" and "radical" choices are the most stimulating with regard to educational change.

Choices Bearing on a Philosophy of Leadership. Somewhere along the line, administrative leadership must come to grips with the problem of making choices between and among the many alternatives available. It is to be hoped that responsibility for recognizing the welfare of the group will provide a basis for sound choices. That is, what profits the group will be considered "good" and "desirable." What harms the group and its members must be rejected as unworthy. This has been portrayed in Figure 4 (The A-A'-B Route). Not only must the leader examine his values in terms of what course of action shall

be followed by the group, but he must understand what his personal role is so that he may fulfill it in ways consistent with the values identified with group well-being. A leader may often be denied the luxury of a clear-cut philosophic choice in terms of absolutes. It is almost inevitably necessary that he make his choices in view of the unique set of circumstances in the educational environment in which he works. Whatever the conditions, it seems reasonable to assume that group choices in which leadership shares but does not monopolize will probably be the more appropriate and effective.

HOW PHILOSOPHY CAN SERVE AS A TOUCHSTONE

It is not uncommon for people of practical affairs to look upon philosophy as a product of the "ivory tower"; something to be used solely as the content of professorial discourse. It is unfortunately true that one is likely to find many discussions of educational choices and alternatives occurring in such a context, but it need not be so.

Values which are unexamined or a system of values (philosophy) which is exercised merely in verbal discourse are both impractical and useless. They generally have little or no direct, constructive influence on behavior. As such, they are, at best, excess baggage. At their worst, they may be little more than rationalizations which give justification to unwarranted beliefs and actions.

A Good Philosophy Is Practical. On the other hand, a well-thought-out, intelligently conceived set of principles which are derived from study and considered experience, act as a powerful source of direction for one's actions. Consistent progress toward a stated goal can be attained adequately only as one sets up and understands the objectives to be achieved. Philosophy can serve the individual as the compass and rudder serve a ship.

An effective philosophy does not necessarily depend exclusively or even heavily upon a person's intensive study of the

classical philosophers of antiquity or those of current vintage, although the value of such a study is not to be minimized. One does not need to study the writings of an Aristotle, a Socrates, Hegel, or Santayana, in order to achieve a philosophy of his own. While an elementary understanding of ontology (the nature of reality) or epistemology (the theory of knowledge) would help one to understand better his own beliefs, they are not indispensable. The most useful philosophy involves a body of beliefs which is internally consistent, and which lends practical direction to the individual's thoughts and actions particularly in group interaction.

Philosophy and Educational Policy. Choices that educational leaders make are dependent upon more than their merely personal values or principles. The philosophy needs be an outgrowth of the individual's intelligent interaction with the culture of which he, the school, and the school personnel are a part. As one of the authors wrote elsewhere:

Every way of life that is worth preserving must have its own philosophy and educational program. Indeed, it is impossible *not* to have a philosophy, but a real tragedy exists if that philosophy is not consciously and deliberately held. . . .

The educational program of a culture is not so easily identified with the philosophy held by the group, or the way of life people intend to live . . . It takes no sage to discover that the way of life a people live must be implemented with a set of tools that is designed for that purpose, a philosophy which will give direction and meaning to the way of life, and an educational system that will systematically prepare individuals to live that life more effectively and abundantly.¹⁴

Particularly over the last half-century there has been developed in American education a set of values which are worthy of the most careful study by the educational leader. These values are those which have been derived from a study of American culture and its patterns of development. Many are the

¹⁴ Wilbur A. Yauch, "The Tools of Democracy: A Defense of Progressive Education," *School and Society*, 63:433, June 22, 1946.

contributors to these analyses of our basic designs for living.¹⁵ Childs pays warm tribute to some of them in the following excerpt:

American education has been most fortunate in the quality of philosophic leaders who have chosen to make the problems and values of education one of their chief concerns. William James, John Dewey, George H. Meade, Boyd H. Bode, William Heard Kilpatrick, Alfred North Whitehead, Ralph Barton Perry, George Albert Coe, and Max Otto, among others, have all perceived that we are entering a new age, and that an altered conception of the program of education is now required to equip the young to feel intellectually and emotionally at home in this new world which our scientific discoveries and technological inventions have brought into existence.¹⁶

We are largely indebted to John Dewey for establishing and intellectualizing certain values which are native to American soil. His philosophy as it has emerged in scores of books and articles reflects the dominant American traditions of experimentation, frontier thinking, and evolutionary change in culture patterns. Spokesmen for the kind and quality of the educational program which logically follows Dewey's philosophy have specified the details.¹⁷ All of these have direct implications for the kind and quality of educational leadership demanded for the guidance of this program.

Out of America's all but limitless physical wealth, of natural and human resources, and out of the proud heritage of values in the Hebraic-Christian traditions of western civilization,

¹⁵ A sampling of some of the more perceptive analysts includes: Robert Lynd, *Knowledge for What?* (Princeton, Princeton University Press, 1945); Harold Rugg, *American Life and the School Curriculum* (New York, Ginn and Co., 1936); Boyd Bode, *Democracy as a Way of Life* (New York, The Macmillan Co., 1943); George Counts, *Education and American Civilization* (New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1952); William H. Kilpatrick, *Education for a Changing Civilization* (New York, The Macmillan Co., 1926); and George Albert Coe, *Law and Freedom in the School* (Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1924).

¹⁶ John L. Childs, "Some Ambiguities in Value Theory in Education," *The American Elementary School, op. cit.*, Chapter II, p. 10.

¹⁷ For example, cf. Harold Rugg, *Foundations for American Education* (New York, World Book Co., 1947).

America has created the potential for unlimited opportunities which leadership is morally obligated to share in developing into a coherent, consistent philosophy. Counts has suggested that the educational program reflecting this philosophy should strive to:

- Create individual excellence, recognizing individual differences and the child as a whole.
- Defend and extend the principles of equality—with full awareness of threats to the idea of “a society of equals” . . . marked by good intercultural relationships both at home and abroad . . .
- Embody in education the practice rather than mere precepts of loyalty to equality . . .
- Invigorate the concept of liberty: its traditions, importance, dangers thereto, political meanings, and practical implementation . . .
- Interpret the importance of a measure of *earned* security and well-being for all, including occupational preparation and social and economic literacy.
- Refine aesthetic traditions for “a civilization of beauty and grandeur.”
- Help children and youth gradually to understand how critical is the challenge to the present to American values and how to avoid the decay of such values . . .
- Develop a sense of urgency and responsibility in creating a humane world community attained without dishonor and marked by cooperation rather than violence.¹⁸

If the philosophy developed by American leaders is to be a worthy one, points such as those above should be considered with care in the process of creating an improved educational program. Although complete equalitarianism probably is impossible to attain—and may even be undesirable as an *unearned* “right”—it seems consistent with democratic principles that the child and adult alike should have the right to achieve security and well-being if they are *earned* and *merited* through efforts and contributions.

¹⁸ For a lucid, vigorous elaboration of the challenge to the schools, cf. George Counts, *op. cit.*, pp. 311-430.

Holding to one philosophy yet participating and perpetuating an educational system antithetical to that system of values is intellectually dishonest. Philosophies of education and their derived educational meanings are among the best of touchstones for lending significance and depth to leadership.¹⁹ It behooves the educational leader to clarify his own thinking concerning the relationships between philosophy and educational policy. If done well the result will be appreciably more than verbal ectoplasm.

SOCIALLY DESIRABLE EDUCATIONAL VALUES: THE DIRECTION THEY CAN LEND TO LEADERSHIP

This book is not a treatise on values. Yet sound values are so vital a foundation for leadership in the schools of America that a few concluding paragraphs must be devoted to the several sources of socially desirable educational values which promise to improve the quality of living in elementary and junior high schools with which the remainder of this book is more directly concerned.

Desirable educational values tend to emanate from five sources: educational philosophy, psychology, the facts and designs of human development, the socio-cultural patterns which make up modern America, and research. Each is equally important and all are interdependent.

Philosophy as a Value-Source. Since much of this chapter has been concerned with a discussion of the role of philosophy as a source of direction for leadership, no further elaboration is needed at this point.

Psychology and Values in Education. During the past fifty years psychology has come into its own as a respected and established body of fact and information about human behavior and the conditions which favor or obstruct learning. As the educational leader becomes adequately informed in this field, it

¹⁹ For an excellent analysis of the relation between philosophy and educational practices, cf. Boyd Bode, *How We Learn* (Boston, D. C. Heath and Co., 1940), especially Chapters XV, XVI, and XVII.

will become apparent that certain values are to be held in greater esteem than others, for the principal reason that they represent larger opportunities for children and youth to achieve the maximum of which they are capable. As a single example, if educational psychology demonstrates that the quality of interest is an indispensable condition for effective learning, the leader will no longer hold important the practice of drumming in pre-selected facts in a course of study regardless of the presence or absence of the motivating factor of interest.²⁰ More will be said about this matter in Chapters Eight and Nine.

Values in the Realm of Human Development. Beginning with the work of Arnold Gesell and his co-workers (see Chapter Three, p. 85), and extending to the present time, some thirty-five years later, there has grown an impressive accumulation of information about the facts and designs of human growth. No longer is it necessary for one to hold unsupported theories or to accept "old wives' tales" about children and youth. The saying, "No one has a right to an opinion when the facts are available," is truer today than ever before. But, as Theman notes, because of the size of the stockpiled data regarding growth and development, the task of becoming and keeping informed is considerable:

Unfortunately, research within a given field of science usually is pursued without much reference to related sciences. As a result, child development as an area of study has not always benefited immediately from the dissemination of research data from one field of scientists [*sic*] to another. In addition, though the implications of many research studies may cross boundary lines from one field of science to another, seldom have research workers from varied fields engaged in coöperative research.²¹

²⁰ For a valuable treatment of the role of interest in the educative process, cf. Arthur Jersild and Ruth Tasch, *Children's Interests and What They Suggest for Education* (New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1949). Also cf. the XIIth Yearbook of the California Elementary Principals Association, *Children's Interests: Elementary School Level* (Sacramento: News Publishing Company, 1940) and Douglas Fryer, *Measurement of Interests* (New York, Henry Holt and Company, 1931).

²¹ Viola Theman, "Emerging Concepts of Child Growth and Development: What They Suggest for Classroom Practice," *The American Elementary School*, *op. cit.*, Chapter IV, p. 57.

This ever-growing fund of findings about human beings is an invaluable source of information for the educational leader, even though the understanding of it requires strenuous, sustained effort. Out of it comes a conception of what constitutes wholesome growth and development which has direct and important meanings for the educational program. The way in which the leader interprets these facts in terms of children and youth under the guidance he shares with the staff is one of the tests of creative leadership.

Values in the Cultural Patterns. One of the best single statements of the values which fertilize American culture is to be found in Counts.²² He identifies five areas of value which seem to be part and parcel of the fabric of American civilization: the Hebraic-Christian ethic, the humanistic spirit, the scientific method, the rule of law, and the democratic faith.

Administrators and consultants in American schools cannot hope to be fully successful in helping to build a solid foundation for education without becoming serious students of American society and its developmental growth and structure. Out of this study can emerge a set of social values which will have a pronounced influence on the impact of the school on coming generations of young people. It seems logical to assume that, since the work of the school is the preparation of the young, through wholesome *present* living, for effective subsequent participation in society, it is necessary that the nature of the society be grasped by those who engage in planning guided experiences of the young. This view has been stated more fully thus:

In order to know what to do with knowledge it is necessary to seek a wider frame of reference than knowledge itself. This will be found in the characteristic way a certain people live, the ideas it has, the beliefs it considers most important to hold. To preserve this way of life the people have discovered that they need to establish schools in which the young may be systematically educated.

A study of the historical development of the people of the United States will reveal that our way of life is called "democ-

²² Counts, *op. cit.*, Part IV, pp. 207-291.

racy." Through 175 years of experimentation, trial and error, and learning the hard way by first-hand experiences, the American people have progressively hammered out a way of life they call "good." It is fair to assume that had the public schools dedicated their efforts to assisting the people achieve a better world we would be much further along the road to success.²³

Research as a Catalyst in the Process of Appraising Educational Problems and Outcomes. Value may inhere in research and research itself may be a value, but one of secondary importance. One is impressed by the importance of searching for facts and knowledge, but it is the *result* of this search which produces the important, primary values which should guide the educational program. In this sense, research is different from the other four sources of value. Research is a process by which one uncovers values, rather than being a primary source of values itself. This view is considered more fully in the chapter which follows.

THE METHOD OF INTELLIGENCE

Values should be intellectualized, not based on prejudice, hunches, superstitions, or unexamined tradition. The leader in education has a moral obligation to base his values on the method of intelligence, a method which received its classical description from Dewey. Essentially, the method involves the following five steps:

- (1) *Suggestions*, in which the mind leaps forward to a possible solution.
- (2) An intellectualization of the difficulty or perplexity that has been felt (directly experienced) into a *problem* to be solved, a question for which an answer must be sought.
- (3) The use of one suggestion after another as a leading idea, or *hypothesis*, to initiate and guide observation and other operations in collection of factual material.
- (4) The mental elaboration of the idea or supposition as an

²³ Wilbur A. Yauch (ed.), *The Education of Ohio's Children for Democratic Living* (Columbus, Ohio, The Department of Elementary School Principals, Ohio Education Association, 1948), p. 7.

idea or supposition (*reasoning*, in the sense in which reasoning is a part, not the whole, of inference).

- (5) Testing the hypothesis by overt or imaginative action.²⁴

It is apparent that the material for reasoning, or the intellectualization of values, is to be found in the five areas listed above. As these materials for philosophizing are examined, considered, and used as a basis for developing hypotheses, the ensuing conclusions and generalizations will provide the kind of firm foundation on which American education deserves to be built.

SUMMARY

Every educational leader must make decisions. These judgments, for better or worse, are reflections of each leader's values. It is highly important that such values be subjected to careful examination to determine that they are worthy ones, in the sense that they are consistent with a sound philosophy and a knowledge of the developmental nature of human beings and society.

Unfortunately, value patterns found in American culture are often inconsistent and sometimes in conflict. This fact places the administrator on his mettle in examining what he accepts to make sure beforehand that it is a desirable educational goal. This may be done in part by scrutinizing one's actions and decisions and attempting to ascertain whether they are sustained by values of which one can be proud.

Various philosophies, theories of learning, and views regarding child development are at present competing for the support of educational leaders. Each needs to be examined as fairly and fully as possible. If schools are to have the enlightened administrative leadership invariably needed for good educational programs, the administrator or consultant must act courageously in the direction toward which his examined beliefs point.

²⁴ John Dewey, *How We Think* (Boston, D. C. Heath and Co., 1933), p. 107. (Italics in the original.)

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CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH GUIDELINES FOR ADMINISTRATIVE-SUPERVISORY LEADERSHIP



A CONCEPT of creative leadership was introduced in Chapter One, and need for the administrator to ascertain that he is motivated by sound and intellectually honest values was dealt with in Chapter Two. In addition to a vision of what good leadership can accomplish, there must be awareness that the leader's success depends to a considerable extent on his professional skills and knowledge.

For many years an entirely unnecessary controversy has raged in educational circles over the question of which was more important: teaching skill or knowledge of subject matter. A similar argument could conceivably develop in the area of leadership, particularly since a great deal of attention has lately been paid to "group process" and "group dynamics," and the role of leadership in facilitating them. But, as is true in teaching, is not the only tenable position that creative leadership depends in equal measure on *both* methods and knowledge?

The present chapter is concerned with the importance to the leader of a fund of knowledge so that his leadership, at least in part, results from community and staff recognition of, and respect for, his professional background.

WHY WE TEACH THE WAY WE DO

American public and private educational practices are extremely varied at the elementary and junior high school level. Among the more than 100,000 school districts in the United States one finds almost every shade and quality of classroom practice. Each school will probably fall somewhere on a continuum, ranging from the reactionary to the experimental as shown in Figure 5.

Some schools may be classified as *reactionary*: their programs tend to reflect the desire to *return to the past*. Perhaps some of the teachers on their staffs have tried more modern practices, but, either through their own concern for the consequences, or because parents have reacted negatively to the program, security is sought in the "tried and true," which usually means that which has been in effect so long as to constitute a traditional value.

The *conservative* school hesitates to accept any change in practice until it has been established as true and desirable beyond reasonable doubt. Its values identify as "good" that which is generally recognized as well-established practice. There is resistance to trying out anything new.

The *middle-of-the-road* school is not interested in pioneering for better practices; it merely wants to be sure that changes are being generally adopted before it accepts them as "safe." This school is characterized by a *wait-and-see* attitude, but it does not necessarily oppose or resist innovations once they have been tested.

Liberal schools deliberately *seek out opportunities* for the improvement of practices. They are alert to what is occurring on experimental fronts and are anxious to keep their programs up-to-date. They experiment with or try out promising, little-tested ideas but rarely pioneer in totally untried areas.

Experimental schools are known for their *intentional innovations*; their programs are frankly exploratory. As in any experimentation, some of their ideas may prove to be wrong or

inconclusive. Other ventures, like the yeast in bread, improve the texture of education as a whole.

No school is likely to be entirely liberal, conservative, or any other undiluted shade of belief. Rather, most schools tend to fluctuate, in various parts of their programs, from reactionary to liberal or experimental. An effort is made to show this in Figure 5. The program in arithmetic and physical education

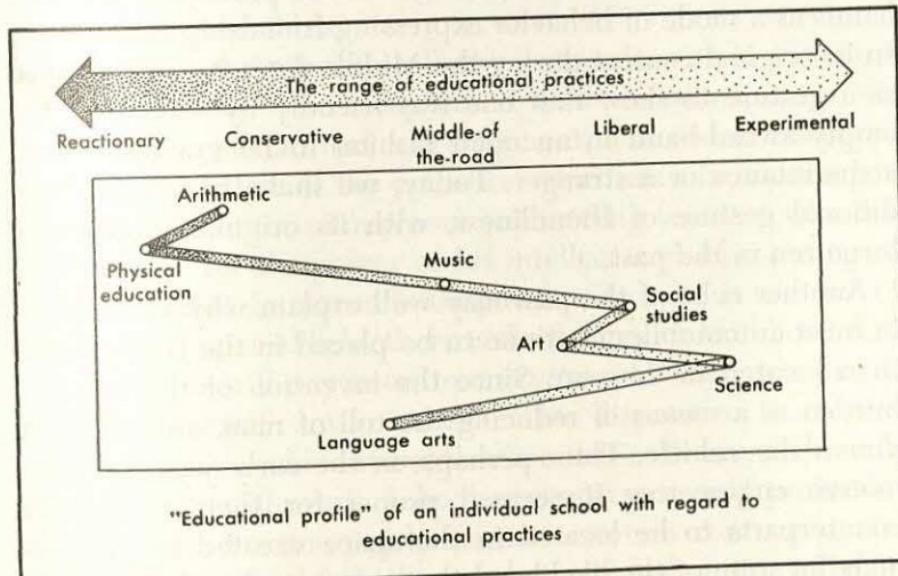


FIG. 5. Diagram illustrating the range of practices in education.

may, for example, tend toward the reactionary or conservative, while in other fields (e.g., social studies and science) it may be liberal and relatively untested.¹

While the diagram points to the range of differences among schools, and within the same school, it merely introduces the question, "Why do we teach the way we do?" In order to answer such a question it is necessary to examine some of the wellsprings of human behavior which help to determine educational practices. The following five widely accepted sources of

¹ It should be noted that each teacher also varies in his practices, even as the school program varies, the individual being more liberal or conservative in one teaching area than another. See Chapter Eight, p. 254, for further development of this point.

authority are suggested as general guides to an understanding of the factors which may motivate teachers to use certain methods or procedures in their work with children:

The Velvet-Gloved Hand of Tradition. All human beings are to some extent governed by habit and long-established custom. Many such traditions have long since lost their original purpose, but the practices they suggest continue. Few people, for instance, are conscious of the origin of the practice of shaking hands as a mode of behavior expressing friendship in greeting. In its original context during the Middle Ages it was intended as a gesture to show that one was friendly by extending the empty sword-hand in an open fashion to be grasped by an acquaintance or a stranger. Today, we shake hands as a traditional gesture of friendliness, with its original significance forgotten in the past.

Another echo of the past may well explain why the engines in most automobiles continue to be placed in the front, rather than located in the rear. Since the invention of the beast of burden as a means of reducing the toil of man, animals have *drawn* the vehicle. Thus, perhaps, in the early years of automotive engineering it seemed proper for their mechanical counterparts to be located in the space vacated by the animals. In spite of the likelihood that a motor placed in the rear would be of equivalent or increased efficiency in operation, motors remain in the location to which drivers have been long accustomed.

For similar reasons traditions hold power over the practices which are prevalent in schools. A glaring example may be found in the persistent tendency of teachers to hold to the doctrine of "mental discipline," the concept that drill to "train the mind" is a basic ingredient in effective instruction. From the time Aristotle first organized the human knowledge of the Western world some 2300 years ago until the recent past, teaching and learning theories have accepted the idea that the "mind" was an entity, analogous to an organ or muscle in the body. If the organ was to achieve maximum power and proficiency, it should be exercised. Modern psychology, during

the past twenty-five years in particular, has been emphasizing and demonstrating that this doctrine is no longer adequate as a basis for learning and other phases of behavior. Notwithstanding this fact, the tradition of training the intellect of the young dominates methods in many schools and motivates parents who are critical of education to insist that more "hard learning" characterize the curriculum.²

Quite evidently, tradition is not a uniformly reliable basis for teaching procedures.

The Weight of Authority. Every nation has its heroes, and the United States is no exception. If someone whom the public holds in high esteem makes a statement, it is widely accepted as truth, regardless of the evidence which may be amassed in refutation. Take for example an outstanding scientist who has won acclaim for the power of his intellect and who has come to be a symbol for sheer brain-power. Since he is worthy of respect in his special field, there is the dangerous likelihood that many citizens will pay heed to *everything* he says, whether it be in the scientific realm or not. This disposition to respect "authority" gains added strength when that authority is directly related to one's lifework. School administrators and professors of education sometimes make pronouncements concerning the proper way to teach which may be accepted uncritically by many teachers. This attitude of "if the boss says so, it must be so," is inimical to the method of intelligence and contrary to concepts of group participation in policy making or problem solving. "Authority" is not of itself a suitable source of direction for teaching. Consider the centuries during which "authorities" proclaimed the world to be flat and the earth to be the center of the universe!

Personal Experience. Since knowledge is the direct sum of one's experiences, it is to be expected that the individual will draw heavily upon what has happened to him personally, whether his experiences be rich or narrow, peculiarly biasing or broadening. While it is inevitable that one's knowledge is

² Cf. Boyd Bode, *How We Learn* (Boston, D. C. Heath and Co., 1940), for an excellent discussion of concepts of mind as they affect educational practices.

derived from experience, it is well to remember that each individual's interpretation of experience is uniquely personal. "One man's meat is another man's poison" is an adage to be carefully considered here. Individual experiences cannot be generalized to apply to the human race, or any small segment of it. Experiences are highly personalized knowledge, and need to be treated respectfully. But they should be rigorously examined before reaching conclusions that they are the best reference point in determining teaching practices.

Professional Preparation. As teachers colleges and schools of education develop more extensive and more significant programs, teachers are increasingly influenced in the methods they use in working with boys and girls by their pre-service and graduate study. If one is to believe the comments and criticisms of school administrators concerning the kind and quality of teacher education programs, one is forced to the conclusion that the preparation has a direct effect on the practices of new teachers, and that on the whole the results are good. Clearly, professional preparation determines "why we teach the way we do," but the range and variation in the nature of teacher education programs is great and all colleges are not uniformly excellent at a given time. Also, each faculty member, as a source of authority for students is influenced by various elements considered here: tradition, authority, *his* personal experiences, *his* preparation, and so forth. Once more it seems reasonable to conclude that college preparation cannot be accepted without qualification as an unexamined determinant of educational practice.

Logic. Enough residue of the classical tradition in school programs has remained to make most of us susceptible to the force of argument by "logical" reasoning which has been relied upon heavily since ancient times. The syllogism, with its major premise, minor premise, and conclusion is a form of proof which many continue to find a compelling source of authority. Created by the early Greek philosophers, refined and perfected in the classical tradition, "logical" argument has a strong influence on what one believes. Although often valuable, logic as a

source of direction must always be scrutinized to insure that there has been substantiation of the major premise.

Take a common example of the syllogism:

Major premise: A biped is an animal with two legs.

Minor premise: Man has two legs.

Conclusion: Man is a biped.

The *internal logic* of the syllogism is undeniable. But, it is based on the assumption that there is truth inherent in and *universal agreement* with regard to the major premise. Once this major premise is successfully attacked or refuted, the entire logical structure falls apart. Logic is no stronger than its major premises, and faulty conclusions easily may be reached despite the most meticulous adherence to logical construction. An example involving the use of a false premise suggests that logic is not a uniformly desirable foundation for educational practices. Consider the unsound first premise of mental discipline and the conclusion below:

Major premise: The mind is an entity similar to a muscle.

Minor premise: Muscles can be strengthened through drill.

Conclusion: The mental faculties, too, can be strengthened by drill.

Scientific Inquiry and Research. Tradition, authority, experience, specialized preparation, and logic may, in a given instance, be a sound basis for determining the *what*, the *how*, and the *why* of education. Each, however, should be tested for its adequacy by scientific inquiry into its derivation, educational application, and general soundness. It has been pointed out that each in its own way may have imperfections and limitations which could serve, under certain circumstances, to deny learners the opportunities for maximum educational development. Through the use of tested results, of controlled experiment, of organized search for facts, teachers and educational leaders can find the measure of adequacy of the other five sources of authority for current school practices.

Developing Professional "Know-How" and "Know-Why." Educational leaders, as they work with parents, teacher groups,

and so forth, are responsible for the maximum effectiveness of the group as it attempts to reach reasoned conclusions as to what constitutes a sound educational program. The creative leader should be clearly aware of the various sources of authority which govern the thinking of teachers, and should be prepared to help them rise above the limitations imposed by some of the factors which determine why they teach as they do. It is particularly important that all members of the teaching group accept as habitual the process of seeking conclusions which are supported by the best available evidence. Unless the leader himself is conversant with sources of such evidence, he may fail to share effectively in the process of finding educationally sound group direction. The remainder of this chapter is devoted to an attempt to point out the resources which are available to the leader and to indicate the nature of a few selected researches which have especially direct implications for the work of the school.

RESEARCH AS A RESOURCE FOR LEADERSHIP

Educational research is, on the whole, an inadequately utilized resource for leadership in education. Further, it is commonly accepted by educators that many of the results of this research have not yet fundamentally affected practices in the classroom. As an example, it is generally agreed among recognized authorities in the field of reading that formal instruction in book reading tends, in many schools, to begin too early for most children.³ Studies frequently have shown that the most advantageous time for such instruction is during the *second half* of the first grade for children of normal intelligence, and of average home background, social development, and physical maturity. Yet, it is much more common to find such instruction reaching considerable intensity during the *first half* of that year.

Mort and Cornell⁴ have stated that it takes between 75 and

³ Emmet A. Betts, *Foundations of Reading Instruction* (New York, American Book Co., 1946), pp. 106-110.

⁴ Paul Mort and Francis Cornell, *American Schools in Transition* (New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1941), p. 49.

100 years for an educational theory to be translated into common practice. This needless educational lag could probably be materially shortened if educational leadership was more widely aware of the findings, and would devote considerably more energy in encouraging the study of this evidence by the teaching staff. It is not possible for a school entirely to eliminate this lag, but much could be done to reduce it.

Hunches Versus Research. William C. Reavis has observed⁵ that one of the weaknesses of the average administrator is the tendency to rely on hunches or intuition rather than factual information that derives from research. This is not to say that hunches are bad or that they are in opposition to research, for one is an indispensable aspect of the other. Consider this statement from Platt and Baker:

A scientific hunch is a unifying or clarifying idea which springs into consciousness suddenly as a solution to a problem in which we are intensely interested . . . A hunch springs from a wide knowledge of facts but is essentially a leap of imagination, in that it goes beyond a mere necessary conclusion which any reasonable man must draw from the data at hand. It is a process of creative thought.⁶

Stopping at the "hunch" or "intuition" stage of rational analysis does, however, cut short the complete act of thought or action at that point where it is still unproved and untested. If one is to progress in the solution of problems it is clearly desirable that one have some preliminary ideas as to what may be done in solving them. At one extreme these notions may be derived from a careful, studied analysis of the elements of the problem, with a leading to cautiously drawn inferences which are then tested in experimental contexts. At the other extreme one may have a sudden, bright idea—a golden guess—that illuminates a problem. The source of the inference, or tentative hypothesis, is less important than the fact that the ideas are

⁵ In an address at the annual Summer Banquet of Phi Delta Kappa, Northwestern University, 1951.

⁶ W. Platt and R. A. Baker, "The Relation of the Scientific 'Hunch' to Research," *The Journal of Chemical Education*, 8:1975, October, 1931.

tested in experimental situations and are reasonably well verified before being proclaimed as additions to human knowledge.

The purpose of the present discussion is served if it has been made plain that the creative leader is likely to have many excellent hunches which may be used for the benefit of the group. These hunches should be explored fully and used generously in discussing with teachers promising ideas as to what may be done in concrete situations. However, the administrator or consultant is likely to be something less than successful if he encourages people to *act* on hunches as though they were facts or before there has been a series of small-scale experimental trials.

Knowledge in the Storehouse. Education today is like the heir to a fortune who is oblivious of his inheritance. The schools are potential beneficiaries of substantial bodies of information, facts, knowledge, which can serve to enrich and improve the quality of learning to which boys and girls of modern America are entitled. It is defaulting on responsibility if educators ignore the research data which are in the educational storehouse.

If the wealth of modern creative thought could be assembled and organized, man would command sufficient wisdom to guide the youth of the world. The School of Tomorrow could be brought to life today. Enough is now known of man, his knowing and his behavior, to organize its teaching. Enough expressive experience has been lived to guarantee a high order of esthetics. Enough is known of the first principles of conduct to solve the problem of freedom and control. . . .⁷

While it is understandable that this volume cannot hope to present more than a tiny sampling of research studies and conclusions to the reader, in the latter half of this chapter an attempt is made to point out many of the sources of this information, and how the leader may use them in his work with teachers.

⁷ Harold Rugg, *Foundations for American Education* (New York, World Book Co., 1947), p. 807.

RESEARCH SOURCES FOR LEADERSHIP

It has been proposed above that teachers teach the way they do for a variety of reasons. All of these may be pertinent under certain conditions, but certain conclusions reached through scientific studies seem the most reliable sources of direction for leadership.

There are two main headings under which research sources for administrators may be categorized: (1) library resources, such as professional journals, which deal with research records and reports from laboratories and centers for experimental study, and (2) the local school and community as a laboratory for original research. In the paragraphs which follow suggestions are made to the educational leader concerning some of the research tools with which he should seek to become familiar.

Some Specific Sources of Important Information and Research Findings in Education. One of the fortunate aspects of research data of importance to the busy administrator or teacher resides in the fact they are well organized for use in the libraries and other centers which are repositories for such information. When confronted with the problem of obtaining either an overview of research as a whole or in order to study a specific topic or field, one can consult one or more of the guides-to-research which are readily obtainable. Knowing how to use these research sources is an important professional asset to leadership.

Research publications may be grouped under several headings. The listing which follows is by no means comprehensive but should serve as a springboard or starting point.⁸

(1) *General publications concerned with research.* Various individuals, scholarly groups and agencies, have compiled books and articles invaluable to the educational leader. A sampling is annotated on page 74.

⁸ For a more comprehensive review of reference aids, cf. W. W. Brickman, "Reference Aids in Educational Research," *School and Society*, 71:324-331, May 27, 1950.

Carter Alexander and Arvid J. Burke, *How to Locate Educational Information and Data*, Third edition; New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1950.

A comprehensive treatment of library research which is simple, specific, and detailed. For example, some 15 pages are devoted to the *Education Index*.

Oscar K. Buros, *Fourth Mental Measurement Yearbook*, New Brunswick, N. J.: Rutgers University Press, 1952.

Buros periodically edits this description of hundreds of measurement devices of almost every description. Individual authorities review tests, scales, appraisal devices and similar types of instruments.

Carter V. Good, *Dictionary of Education*, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1945.

A reasonably successful attempt to penetrate the jungle of educational terminology. Somewhat dated but still useful.

Carter V. Good, A. S. Barr, and Douglas E. Scates, *The Methodology of Educational Research*, New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1936.

Long considered an authoritative treatment, this volume remains a comprehensive treatise on procedures.

Walter A. Monroe, *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, Revised Edition. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1950.

Published periodically under the auspices of the American Educational Research Association (NEA), this is a comprehensive (1520pp.) review of research in the field. Literally thousands of research studies are cited at the end of numerous fields and topics examined.

Frederick L. Whitney, *The Elements of Research*, Third Edition. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1950.

Reviews types of research and procedures, research sources, surveys, curriculum research, etc. A standard reference.

(2) *Examples of research bibliographies.* While books such as those above are of unquestionable value, they are supplemented in an important fashion by periodically issued lists of current research. Here again, various individuals and agencies supply the student with listings which save uncounted hours of library work. For example, in the *Phi Delta Kappan*, journal

of a well-known professional fraternity for men in education, it has been customary for lists of dissertations and significant books to appear at frequent intervals.⁹ The Office of Education in Washington performs similar services, even to such specialized items as, for example, Covert's *Selected Bibliography on School Finance, 1933 to 1948*.¹⁰ For a number of years the U. S. Office has also issued the *Bibliography of Research Studies in Education* which could be reissued with real profit. Librarians can recommend to the administrator a number of similar titles which space limitations preclude listing here.

(3) *Representative continuing publications treating research.* A variety of magazines and periodicals provide a third source. One of the most useful is the *Review of Educational Research*, published by the American Educational Research Association (NEA). Five issues appear each year and, over a period of three years, cycle through 15 topics.

The *Journal of Educational Research*, edited by A. S. Barr, is a sound example of the important periodicals devoted to research. Here the educational leader can locate first-hand accounts of significant studies which deal with a wide variety of educational topics.

For the student seeking highly specialized data from related disciplines, there are literally dozens of analogous journals with such titles as: *Pedagogical Seminary*, *Journal of Genetic Psychology*, *Journal of Geography*, or *Journal of Educational Sociology*. Many institutions sponsor outstanding contributing publications such as the Ohio State University's *Educational Research Bulletin*. The *California Journal of Elementary Education* represents a first-rate state publication.

⁹ Representative articles from the *Phi Delta Kappan* include: R. L. Hunt, "Doctor's Dissertations Under Way in Education, 1951-1952" (34:305-338, February, 1952); S. B. Brown and Mary Louise Lyda, "Doctoral Studies Completed in Education, 1949-1950" (33:355-372, March, 1952); Julia L. Certain, C. Richman, and C. W. Holman, "Educational Books of 1951" (33:389-403, April, 1952).

¹⁰ T. Covert, *Selected Bibliographies on School Finance, 1933-1948*, Bulletin 1949, No. 14, U. S. Office of Education, Washington, D. C., U. S. Government Printing Office, 1949.

In a scholarly article Broadus¹¹ cites the twelve most frequently mentioned journals used by educational research workers. While popularity does not necessarily connote excellence, some of the following (listed in order of frequency-of-mention in research bibliographies) should be familiar to the educational leader:

American School Board Journal
Educational Administration and Supervision
Elementary School Journal
Journal of Educational Research
Journal of Educational Psychology
Journal of Experimental Education

Pedagogical Seminary
Psychological Bulletin
Research Quarterly
Review of Educational Research
School and Society
School Review

(4) *Pamphlets and fugitive materials pertaining to educational research.* An enormous outpouring of research monographs, reports, and articles finds its way to library shelving. Unfortunately, much of this literature slips into obscure corners where it may never be catalogued, and is difficult to locate. It is important to bear in mind that such sources of data exist and often prove to be treasures for the patient researcher. The U. S. Office of Education, state departments of education, most colleges and universities, and a wide variety of professional organizations are among the most fertile producers of fugitive materials.

(5) *Standard library tools for use in educational research.* Aside from the librarian, who is an outstanding "tool" for the administrator or supervisor, there are a number of standard tools with which one can pry loose research data. Among these aids in most libraries are: *Education Index*, a cumulative author, subject, and title index to educational books, pamphlets, and magazine articles, *Education Abstracts*, and *Psychological Abstracts*. Many similar leads to sources of data are available to the student of research who is willing to make inquiries.

¹¹ Robert N. Broadus, "The Literature of Educational Research," *School and Society*, 77:8-10, January 3, 1953. For an even more comprehensive and detailed report see W. D. Wilkins and Lucy Gross, "Usefulness of Educational Periodicals for Research," *School and Society*, 79:9-11, January 9, 1954.

(6) *Publications on style, form, and statistics.* If the educational leader wishes to prepare an original paper or report, he will find an additional group of publications a source of help. Two widely used booklets which suggest how to prepare materials are: Kate L. Turabian's *A Manual for Writers of Dissertations*¹² and W. G. Campbell's *A Form Book for Thesis Writing*.¹³ Porter G. Perrin's *Writer's Guide and Index to English*¹⁴ is a useful desk-book which answers many questions pertaining to English usage.

Upon occasion a writer may wish to familiarize himself also with the terminology and procedures in statistics. A few of the generally available texts include: Helen M. Walker's *Elementary Statistical Methods*,¹⁵ P. O. Johnson's *Statistical Methods in Research*,¹⁶ H. E. Garrett's *Statistics in Psychology and Education*,¹⁷ and E. F. Linquist's *A First Course in Statistics*.¹⁸

The suggested research sources and tools above may seem to comprise unduly arid reading to the leader lacking interest in research, but professional status has, as one prerequisite, a certain amount of specialized knowledge. Effective leadership depends upon acquaintance with all phases of the profession, including research foundations which support current trends in curriculum, school organization, or learning theory.

Local resources for research. In addition to the conventional research guides discussed above, the administrator often has a variety of local resources on which he may draw for help. Agencies related to or interested in education can be important sources in carrying out research. Welfare and health organiza-

¹² Kate L. Turabian, *A Manual for Writers of Dissertations* (Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1937).

¹³ William G. Campbell, *A Form Book for Thesis Writing* (Boston, Houghton, Mifflin Co., 1952).

¹⁴ Porter G. Perrin, *Writer's Guide and Index to English* (Chicago, Scott, Foresman and Co., 1942).

¹⁵ Helen M. Walker, *Elementary Statistical Methods* (New York, Henry Holt & Co., 1943).

¹⁶ Palmer O. Johnson, *Statistical Methods in Research* (New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1949).

¹⁷ H. E. Garrett, *Statistics in Psychology and Education* (Fourth edition, New York, Longmans, Green and Co., 1953).

¹⁸ E. F. Linquist, *A First Course in Statistics* (Boston, Houghton, Mifflin and Co., 1942).

tions,¹⁹ civic and fraternal groups,²⁰ and local units of professional organizations²¹ are among those to which school workers can turn for cooperation and material support.

Human resources are perhaps the most important resource of all. Children, teachers, parents, staff members from nearby colleges, and professional workers in such fields as psychiatry, pediatrics, or sociology are representative of the individuals who may be consulted and whose services may be used in the process of seeking sound, tested answers to professional problems.

It would be unfortunate if the reader has concluded by now that a knowledge of resources for research is a major portion of the sum total of educational leadership. In fact, it would be even dangerous to assume that specific skill in this area is unduly important if overemphasis on research meant neglect of other leadership responsibilities. And if a leader is to use special skills and knowledges in an area of activity which is relatively foreign to the average teacher merely as a means of impressing them with his superiority, it might be better if he did not possess this competency at all! But if a school staff is to base its program on solid foundations, there should be those in the group who are capable of using the "acres of diamonds" which lie fallow in the fields of research.

SOME VARIED KINDS OF RESEARCH

For practical purposes there are two general types of research, each with a number of sub-types. These are: (1) fundamental or so-called "pure" research, and (2) evaluative or action research with its many creative applications.

Fundamental Research. Beginning around 1920 administrators in the U. S. began to exhibit much interest in basic research

¹⁹ For example, the local or state Department of Public Welfare.

²⁰ Rotary, Lions, Kiwanis, church groups, local historical societies, and many similar organizations are usually willing to cooperate with the schools, particularly in *action* research type of investigations. (See below for details.)

²¹ For instance, state teachers' associations, local ACEI or ASCD groups, or chapters of medical and dental organizations.

and its implications for curriculum improvement. This was the era of the testing movement and many educators had the conviction that schools could be permanently and significantly improved as the profession learned more adequately how to apply the methodology of scientific procedures.

Numerous experiments involving control groups were reported, grouping was based on intelligence test scores, and elaborate plans were developed for the parcelling out of subject matter at the various grade levels. Beyond question, a great many results of value stemmed from the effort to study education scientifically in the 1920's and 1930's. Techniques and findings of enduring importance enhanced the status and strengthened the foundations of education.²² But by the mid-1930's there also was a widening recognition of the fact that scientific research procedures and analyses, *per se*, were not a cure for all educational ills and a means of satisfying all professional needs.

It was sensed that the infinitely varied children in the schools could not be studied as the scientist studies bacteria or chemical reactions. The variables in human nature are so extensive and so incapable of adequate control that the statistical results achieved were rarely valid for the general population. In short, the profession began to realize that there were too many intangibles and immeasurables to permit the precise measuring devices of "pure" science to be used with any degree of accuracy.

Evaluative and Action Research. In the quest for means of studying educational problems, a growing number of educators began, in the early 1930's, to develop what came to be known as the *evaluative process*. This involved procedures that were less rigid, more cooperative, and sometimes independent of scientific control in gauging the values and outcomes of the

²² For an intelligent and widely recognized treatment of conventional research procedures in the 1930's, cf. Carter V. Good, A. S. Barr, and D. E. Scates, *The Methodology of Educational Research* (New York, D. Appleton-Century Co., 1936). A definition of scientific research appears on p. 8, and the nature of steps of scientific procedures are discussed on p. 10ff.

work of the school.²³ Deliberately concerned with educational values and the so-called "intangibles" of human behavior, evaluation makes use of appropriate research techniques and procedures, but is not limited by them in the search for better ways of working with children. The steps in the evaluative process consist of: (1) sensing a problem, (2) clarifying values that bear on it, (3) developing criteria for studying the problem, (4) expressing the criteria in terms of desirable behavior, (5) establishing situations in which the behavior can be studied, (6) using instruments or procedures in the study of behavior, (7) analyzing the behavior change, and (8) taking action compatible with the findings.²⁴

Action research is related to evaluation, as was pointed out by Wiles,²⁵ and has become a new focal point of interest to educators as a flexible approach to the study of educational problems since the late 1940's. According to Corey, action research involves:

- (1) The statement of an hypothesis or prediction which emphasizes a goal and a procedure for reaching the goal.
- (2) A determination of the relation of the goal to a larger total situation.
- (3) A description of the goal so that some sort of evidence of the degree to which it has been reached can be procured.
- (4) A description of the procedure so that another person will know what action was taken.
- (5) Provision for collecting evidence describing the goal situation before and after the designated procedure has been applied.
- (6) The formulation of generalizations regarding the relationship between practice or action and the desired goal.²⁶

²³ For a more detailed discussion of evaluation, cf. Harold G. Shane and E. T. McSwain, *Evolution and the Elementary Curriculum* (New York, Henry Holt and Co., 1951), Chapter III and Appendix A.

²⁴ *Ibid.*, pp. 54-55.

²⁵ Kimball Wiles, "Can We Sharpen the Concept of Action Research?" *Educational Leadership*, 10:408, April, 1953.

²⁶ Stephen M. Corey, "Curriculum Improvement Through Action Research," *Educational Leadership*, 7:147-153, December, 1949. For an excellent, more recent treatment see his *Action Research to Improve School Practices* (New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1953).

The creative leader should recognize and be familiar with the applications of both conventional and evaluative types of research. As noted earlier, lacking such acquaintance, he is reduced to educated guesses and untested hunches. The knowledge in the storehouse can be had only as the leader possesses the keys to the doors and has a conveyance by which it may be removed. Both types of research should be recognized and used by the schools in attaining their purposes.

WHAT RESEARCH CAN AND CANNOT DO

For purposes of establishing proper perspective it seems appropriate at this point to reiterate that the preceding pages do not support the position that a suitable blend of established and experimental research will bring about a Golden Age in education. Research has improved practice, and will continue to do so, yet it has distinct shortcomings which need to be recognized.

Strengths and Shortcomings. On the asset side of the ledger certain outstanding researchers have suggested better procedures, which now permeate practice. Some of the general strengths include:

- (1) The fact that much in the field of research is reasonably well organized.
- (2) The substantial quantity of research available in certain fields, such as the language arts, arithmetic, and school administration.
- (3) Research from related disciplines, such as anthropology and sociology, is increasingly available to supplement and complement educational data.
- (4) Techniques and procedures which already have been devised provide a means to the rational solution of many issues and problems.
- (5) Research data constitute a body of knowledge which lends status to the profession.

On the debit side, a number of shortcomings have been stated by Stoddard, who pointed out that:

- (1) Much current educational research is prosaic and repetitive; it lacks impact.
- (2) Much current educational research is fragmentary and discontinuous.
- (3) Even when useful, much educational research avoids basic issues.
- (4) Educational research frequently is divorced from a superstructure in human values, especially as expressed in the fine arts.²⁷

Stoddard's comments point up the fact that there is too little winnowing of research grain so that too much of the chaff is published. This complicates the work of the student who often must wade through many irrelevancies to find suitable data. Indeed, almost 4,000 published studies have been reported in the field of reading alone!

A SAMPLING OF STUDIES IN EDUCATION WITH IMPLICATIONS FOR LEADERSHIP

Thus far a good bit has been said about research in general terms. But what are some specific bodies of knowledge which have come from research with which the educational leader should be familiar?

The studies which *might* be cited are legion. Recognizing that it is highly impractical if not impossible to draft a comprehensive list of contributions which merit the vague adjective "significant," the writers offer the following work of individuals and associations as a sampling of studies of interest and value to creative leadership in the profession.²⁸

Studies in the Curriculum Area. The following studies repre-

²⁷ George D. Stoddard, "Educational Research Lacks Impact: It Avoids Controversies and Human Values," *The Nation's Schools*, 49:44-46, May, 1952.

²⁸ There will forever be a controversy as to what constitutes a definitive list of "basic" researches because "beauty is in the eye of the beholder." Admittedly, limitations in the writers' background and their personal bias have controlled the selection of the few studies chosen. Certain reports of value to educational leadership are included although they lack truly experimental research design, and emphasis is given to variety as well as to the attempt to include certain major researches.

sent the body of information which has and is lending direction to curriculum planning and development.

Wrightstone's appraisal of educational practices. In the mid-1930's J. Wayne Wrightstone produced the first of several comparisons of the efficacy of "conventional" and "new-type" schools. His work suggested that the more flexible "new-type" programs tended to prepare children as well academically as formal programs. In addition, they helped to create more broad-minded, honest, and intellectually alert boys and girls. He has been widely recognized for pioneering evaluative techniques and for producing preliminary, albeit sometimes inconclusive, evidence of the beneficial influence of activity programs.²⁹ Subsequently, he participated actively in a more elaborate and controlled experiment in New York City which did much to substantiate his earlier findings.³⁰

The Eight Year Study. Sponsored by the Progressive Education Association during the 1930's, this ambitious piece of research was concerned with the question of how youth would fare in college if freed from the need to meet conventional college entrance requirements during their high school years. During the investigation, 1475 graduates from 30 participating high schools were matched with a comparable group in more conventional programs within the same schools. In all but one subject field, foreign language, the experimental group exceeded the control group to some degree. A subordinate study suggested that the graduates of the schools with the most widely deviating programs "were strikingly more successful than their matchees."³¹ Apparently ". . . the more experimental the school the greater the degree of success in college."³²

The Eight Year Study, in addition to its findings, led to

²⁹ Cf. J. Wayne Wrightstone, *Appraisal of Newer Elementary School Practices*, and *Appraisal of Experimental High School Practices* (New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1938 and 1936, respectively).

³⁰ *The Activity Program*, under the direction of J. Cayce Morrison (Albany, The State Department of Education, September, 1941).

³¹ Dean Chamberlain, *et al.*, *Did They Succeed in College?* (New York, Harper and Brothers, 1942), cf. pp. 208-209.

³² *Loc. cit.*

appreciable gains in the development of evaluative instruments and new appraisal techniques.³³

Stratemeyer's curriculum analysis. Shortly after World War II Stratemeyer proposed the concept of curriculum based on persistent life situations: an analysis of the needs and nature of the child in his social environment. She defined certain problems, totalling over 100, which the child needs to solve (moral choices, choosing leaders, selecting food, etc.). In cooperation with many teachers she proposed some of the implications for re-thinking school practices.³⁴

Caswell's summary of current curriculum practices. With the help of 15 associates in distinguished school systems throughout the country, Caswell provided an important addition to the limited descriptive literature dealing with current curriculum programs. Denver, Glencoe, Minneapolis, and many other systems presented and appraised their efforts at curriculum improvement.³⁵

Children's interests and the curriculum. Considerable attention has been given to the role of children's interests in the many years since John Dewey first linked interest and effort. Jersild and Tasch in their *Children's Interests and What They Suggest for Education* used a simple instrument with 11 completion questions (e.g., "What I'd like to learn more about at school") to study the anatomy of interests, and summarized their conclusions in 25 generalizations of importance.³⁶

Studies Pertaining to Human Development. The field of human development is one of such breadth as to pose a real problem in choosing a few examples of inquiries with particular

³³ For an overview, cf. Wilford M. Aikin, *The Story of the Eight Year Study* (New York, Harper and Brothers, 1942).

³⁴ Florence B. Stratemeyer, et al., *Developing a Curriculum for Modern Living* (New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1947). Also, cf. the follow-up booklet, *Guides to a Curriculum for Modern Living*, 1952.

³⁵ Hollis L. Caswell, et al., *Curriculum Improvement in Public School Systems* (New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1950).

³⁶ Arthur Jersild and Ruth Tasch, *Children's Interests and What They Suggest for Education* (New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1949), cf. pp. 71-83.

meaning for leadership. This fact is mirrored in the size of the December 1952, *Review of Educational Research* which treated the topic "Growth, Development, and Learning." The 183 pages in this expanded issue made it one of the largest, if not the largest, ever circulated. Exclusive of the recondite research reports which appear from time to time in scholarly journals,³⁷ several contributions which might well be a part of the leader's professional background suggest themselves.

Gesell's child development research. After the compilation of great quantities of data, as in his multi-volume pictorial *Atlas of Infant Behavior*, over a dozen books, and numerous articles, Gesell and his associates published two highly readable and popular volumes, *The Infant and Child in the Culture of Today* (1943), and *The Child from Five to Ten* (1946).³⁸ These summarize and simplify findings and conclusions which have tremendously influenced education. Well known even to parents, Gesell's work is representative of a rich outpouring of developmental literature which can guide the creative administrator and teaching staff.³⁹

Olson and the concept of organic age. In his carefully documented book, *Child Development*,⁴⁰ Olson has made an outstanding synthesis of research in the field and presents a clear picture of the "central tendency of growth called organic age."⁴¹ The development of the bones, dentition, height, weight, grip, changes in reading age, mental age, and so on, are among the factors Olson has included as indices to his central growth tendency. His views have strongly presented the case for directing the work of the school in relation to the infinitely varied individuality of children.

³⁷ E. G., cf. J. R. Patrick, "Studies of Rational Behavior and Emotional Excitement; Part II—The Effect of Emotional Excitement on Human Subjects," *Journal of Comparative Psychology*, 18:153-195, 1934.

³⁸ Cf. chapter references for bibliographic data.

³⁹ More directly concerned with adolescence than Gesell are the following: Frankwood Williams, *Adolescence: Studies in Mental Hygiene* (New York, Farrar and Rinehart, 1930); Caroline B. Zachry, *Emotion and Conduct in Adolescence* (New York, D. Appleton-Century Co., 1940); Peter Blos, *The Adolescent Personality* (New York, D. Appleton-Century Co., 1941).

⁴⁰ Willard C. Olson, *Child Development* (Boston, D. C. Heath and Co., 1949).

⁴¹ *Ibid.*, p. 40.

Developmental tasks. Although he explicitly credits the minting of the term "developmental tasks" to Lawrence K. Frank,⁴² it has become closely associated with Havighurst, who defined it as ". . . a task which arises at or about a certain period of life in the individual, successful achievement of which leads to his happiness and success with later tasks, while failure leads to unhappiness in the individual, disapproval of the society, and difficulty with later tasks."⁴³ His work with the Committee on Human Development⁴⁴ is opening new dimensions with regard to the selection and direction of the experiences of children and youth.

Jersild and self-understanding. Data from 3,000-odd compositions dealing with "What I Like [and Dislike] about Myself," written by children from the fourth grade through college, were transmuted into an unusual little report by Jersild.⁴⁵ Through the eyes of children and youth reactions to physical characteristics, religion, sex, social status, grooming, and similar qualities associated with self, assume a significance which Jersild points out, in a minor key, in the brief concluding chapters of his analysis.

The American Council Study. A practical, influential publication with much source material is *Helping Teachers Understand Children*, a volume prepared by the Commission on Teacher Education of the American Council on Education.⁴⁶ The study, in broad, insightful terms, deals with what it really means to understand a child. The behavior of many children is examined and dissected by sensible, able teachers. There are wonderfully appropriate comments ranging from the intelligent recording of anecdotal records to the dynamics of children's groups in the elementary school.

⁴² Robert J. Havighurst, *Developmental Tasks and Education* (New York, Longmans, Green and Co., 1950), p. 1; also see his subsequent *Human Development and Education* (same publisher, 1953).

⁴³ *Ibid.*, p. 6.

⁴⁴ Of the University of Chicago.

⁴⁵ Arthur T. Jersild, *In Search of Self* (New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1952).

⁴⁶ American Council on Education, *Helping Teachers Understand Children* (Washington, D. C., The Council, 1945).

Research Bearing on School Policies and Organization. Henry J. Otto, a leading student of school administration, noted that there is probably no area in education more in need of research than elementary school administration.⁴⁷ Too much work in this field has consisted of surveys of present practices (normative survey research), rather than more creative studies which promise to lend direction to practice. A few selected examples of useful investigations, including good survey research, follow.

The Office of Education studies. Authoritative studies of practices and conditions in school organization and policies often are made by the Office of Education in the Federal Security Agency. For instance, Bathurst⁴⁸ directed a useful overview of what schools are doing to improve the framework of instruction. Field workers visited 100 districts in the preparation of her report. *Schools at Work in 48 States: A Study of Elementary School Practices*⁴⁹ presents a similar comprehensive summary. Literally hundreds of such researches are available to the student of education.⁵⁰ *The Biennial Survey of Education in the United States* is a continuing publication with much data therein pertaining to such statistical items as teacher-pupil ratio. It, too, is prepared by the Office of Education.

McCall on teacher rating. Merit-rating teachers is a controversial school policy, often emotionally charged because it can so directly affect the teacher's salary and tenure. In any random glance at research, McCall's extensive analysis of possible ways of gauging effective teaching deserves a place. He measured comprehensively the growth made by children and then sought to determine how well this growth correlated with the judgments of administrators and other so-called "expert" evaluators, preparation and experience of the teacher, and so

⁴⁷ Henry J. Otto, "Organization of the Educational Program," *Review of Educational Research*, 23:181-187, April, 1953.

⁴⁸ Effie Bathurst, et al., *Organization and Supervision of Elementary Education in 100 Cities* (Washington, D. C., Federal Security Agency, Office of Education, 1949).

⁴⁹ *Schools at Work in 48 States: A Study of Elementary School Practices* (Washington, D. C., Office of Education, FSA Bulletin #13, 1952).

⁵⁰ For an impressive bibliography, cf. current Office of Education listings issued by the Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25, D. C.

forth. It is instructive to note that administrators' judgments correlated inversely with the teachers' measured ability to help children grow! McCall concludes that he ". . . failed to find any system of measuring teacher merit . . . as a basis for paying salaries of all teachers."⁵¹

Kight and Michelson and school organization permitting a problem-centered approach. This study was an attempt to contrast the efficacy of subject-centered teaching with the problem approach. Over 1,400 young adolescents were studied in the effort to compare the activity (or core) type of instruction versus subject-centered teaching. The pupils in the classes where problem-centered units were taught, when measured, were significantly more able to learn how to solve their problems than were those in subject-centered programs.⁵² Kight and Michelson's conclusions suggest the importance of flexible organizational policies (i.e., the core approach rather than strictly departmentalized work) in order to improve teaching methods and results.

Space limitations preclude résumés of other relevant studies on organization and policies, such as Pauly's⁵³ suggestions on entrance age, Sandin⁵⁴ or Akridge⁵⁵ on promotion policies, or Fries'⁵⁶ description of monthly admission to the elementary schools of South Plainfield, N. J.

Research in the Skill Subjects. Insofar as research resources for leadership are concerned, the student in education will find extensive listings in subject matter areas. In the field of arithmetic alone a publication of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development compiles and categorizes dozens

⁵¹ W. A. McCall, *Measurement of Teacher Merit* (Raleigh, N. C., Department of Public Instruction, 1952), p. 37.

⁵² S. S. Kight and J. M. Michelson, "Problems vs. Subjects," *The Clearing House*, 24:3-7, September, 1949.

⁵³ F. R. Pauly, "Sex Differences and Legal School Entrance Age," *Journal of Educational Research*, 45:1-10, 1951.

⁵⁴ A. A. Sandin, "Social and Emotional Adjustments of Regularly Promoted and Non-promoted Pupils," *Child Development Monographs*, No. 32, 1944.

⁵⁵ G. H. Akridge, *Pupil Progress Policies and Practices* (New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1937).

⁵⁶ H. C. Fries, "A Continuous Progress School," *American School Board Journal*, 119:52, July, 1949.

of pertinent studies and what they suggest for practice,⁵⁷ yet the authors managed to include a mere sampling.

A list of three or four specific researches in the language arts, science, or arithmetic is not given; rather, the reader is referred to the periodic digests of research which appear in the *Review of Educational Research*⁵⁸ and to the files of such publications as the *Journal of Educational Research*.

Of a general nature, and representative of publications especially useful to leaders in their contacts with parents, are two studies dealing with children's achievement. One of these, by Rock,⁵⁹ is a summary of more than a dozen studies which trace the steady academic improvement in children's work from 1846-1949. The other well-documented report is by Harding,⁶⁰ who provides reassuring evidence of progress in instruction in basic skills. For extensive and excellent compilations of research data in basic school subjects, written for the student in education, the reader is also referred to the standard works of Cole⁶¹ and Hildreth.⁶²

The Socio-Cultural Environment as a Source of Research Data. Often less familiar to the educational leader than research in curriculum, school organization, or the skill subjects are many of the researches of recent years which deal with collateral influences on the school. The references here have to do with the thinking, writing, and investigations in the social and psychological environment which molds the lives of children. The posthumously published book by Plant, *The Envelope*,⁶³

⁵⁷ V. J. Glennon and C. W. Hunnicut, *What Does Research Say About Arithmetic?* (Washington, D. C., The Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1952).

⁵⁸ For example, cf. G. W. Sowards and C. B. Stendler, "The Content of Early and Middle Childhood Education," *Review of Educational Research*, 23:151-161, April, 1953. This cites 52 recent and current researches.

⁵⁹ B. R. Rock, *Children's Achievement: Today and Yesterday* (Austin, Texas, The Texas Elementary Principals and Supervisors Association, 1952).

⁶⁰ L. W. Harding, "How Well Are Schools Now Teaching the Basic Skills?" *Progressive Education*, 29:12-13, October, 1951.

⁶¹ Luella Cole, *The Elementary School Subjects* (New York, Rinehart & Co., 1946).

⁶² Gertrude Hildreth, *Learning the Three R's* (Second edition, Minneapolis, Educational Publishers, Inc., 1947).

⁶³ James S. Plant, *The Envelope* (New York, The Commonwealth Fund, 1950).

with the meaningful subtitle, "A Study of the Impact of the World Upon the Child," captures a good bit of the spirit of the new research.

Educational sociology has made major contributions to the work of the school. Hollingshead's⁶⁴ analysis of the influence of social class on the adolescents in a small town near Chicago, and Stendler's⁶⁵ report on caste-class impact as it touches intermediate and junior high school children are cases in point. Robbins⁶⁶ has grouped the recent socio-cultural studies in four categories:

- (1) *General studies*, exemplified by George Counts' *Education and American Civilization* (1952), and George Beale's *History of Freedom of Teaching in American Schools* (1941).
- (2) *Child Socialization studies*, such as Davis and Dollard's *Children in Bondage* (1940), Bossard's *Sociology of Child Development* (1948), or Allison Davis' research, i.e., in cultural bias as it works to the detriment of the Negro child and others often exposed to cultural deprivation.
- (3) *Culture and the schools*, as in Warner, *et al.*, *Who Shall Be Educated?* (1944), which treats inequities of educational opportunity, Harold Hand's Illinois Curriculum Study work, or Hilda Taba's *Intergroup Education in Public Schools* (1952).
- (4) *Interpersonal relations*, as Louis Raths' "intergroup education" at New York University, and Jennings' *Leadership or Isolation* (1943), and others in the area of sociometry.

Robbins' groupings suggest how research is deepening and broadening with each decade and creating a consequential problem for leadership: the unremitting task of keeping up-to-date. A chapter in a recent yearbook of the John Dewey So-

⁶⁴ A. deB. Hollingshead, *Elmtown's Youth* (New York, John Wiley and Son, Inc., 1949).

⁶⁵ C. B. Stendler, *Children of Brasstown* (Urbana, University of Illinois Press, 1949).

⁶⁶ Florence Greenhoe Robbins, *Educational Sociology* (New York, Henry Holt and Co., 1953), p. 8.

society⁶⁷ is representative of the current sources of information available to those who are pressed for time and seek a digest of research related to but not necessarily directly in education.

Cursory though it may be, the foregoing should clearly imply that there is a foundation upon which leadership can build a solid professional status. Principals, superintendents, and supervisory consultants can achieve the security which comes from knowing some of the work which is being done on the growing edge in American education. As this information and knowledge becomes increasingly available to classroom teachers it will tend to redirect practices from more traditional methods and channel them in the direction of procedures consistent with the rapidly growing science of education. If leadership is alert, teachers will teach as they do because it has been *demonstrated* that a given way works best.⁶⁸

RESEARCH IN DISCIPLINES RELATED TO EDUCATION WITH IMPLICATIONS FOR CREATIVE LEADERSHIP

The Interdisciplinary Emphasis. It may seem little short of sadistic at this point to bring up investigations in fields other than education, since the list of researches already cited is a long one. But, since these fields are increasingly influential in modifying the thinking and practices of school faculties, it is important that they be mentioned. During the past decade more and more attention has been directed toward anthropology, sociology, biology, psychology, and even business administration as productive sources of scholarly information which can contribute to continued improvement of programs.

Anthropology as a source of data has won considerable atten-

⁶⁷ W. G. Moorehead and C. B. Standler, "Some Research Studies in Education and Related Disciplines Which Suggest Good Elementary School Practices." Chapter XII, XIIIth Yearbook of the John Dewey Society, *The American Elementary School*, *op. cit.*, p. 281ff.

⁶⁸ Note: entire categories of educationally promising research have been omitted because of the necessity of brevity. References at the close of the chapter are intended as a slight compensation. See references to Lippitt, Lewin, Sherif, Redl, Sharp, Elsberry, etc.

tion because it has demonstrated how children achieve personality and selfhood through the culture. Since schools are one of the more important agencies in transmitting that culture, the field of anthropology tends to reaffirm the importance of good schools.⁶⁹

Biology has figured in education for many years, since Darwin wrote his *Origin of Species*. Today, biological research is commonly cited in education because it has suggested, even as anthropology, that human beings have multiple potentialities for growth and development, and that the environment provided is often the important determinant in the nature and quality of progress toward maturity. Cannon's *Wisdom of the Body* is an example of intellectually exciting reading for serious students of education.⁷⁰

Psychology as a discipline has a definite link with the biologists in such works as that of Wheeler and Perkins.⁷¹ Its relation to education is self-evident, particularly as regards the learning process and aspects of child growth and behavior. Readable standard works in psychology document this contention thoroughly.⁷²

Sociological investigations which apply to education are often indistinguishable from educational sociology and social psychology. Typical of sociology and its educational bearings are

⁶⁹ Representative readings in anthropology and other disciplines appear here and there in subsequent footnotes. Cf. D. G. Harding, *Personal Character and Cultural Milieu* (Syracuse, Syracuse University Press, 1948); O. Lewis, *Life in a Mexican Village* (Urbana, University of Illinois Press, 1951); C. Kluckhohn and H. A. Murray, *Personality in Nature, Society, and Culture* (New York, Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1948); R. Linton, *Cultural Backgrounds of Personality* (New York, D. Appleton-Century Co., 1945); B. Malinowski, *A Scientific Theory of Culture* (Chapel Hill, University of North Carolina Press, 1944).

⁷⁰ W. B. Cannon, *The Wisdom of the Body* (New York, W. W. Norton Co., 1932). Also see his "Stresses and Strains of Homeostasis," *American Journal of Medical Science*, 189:1-14, 1935.

⁷¹ R. H. Wheeler and F. T. Perkins, *Principles of Mental Development* (New York, Thomas Y. Crowell and Co., 1932), pp. 107-121 and pp. 239-260.

⁷² Cf. E. Heidbreder, *Seven Psychologies* (New York, D. Appleton-Century Co., 1933); E. R. Hilgard, *Theories of Learning* (New York, Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1948); W. C. Trow, *Educational Psychology* (Second edition, New York, Houghton, Mifflin Co., 1950); B. F. Skinner, *Science and Human Behavior* (New York, The Macmillan Co., 1953); and Charles E. Skinner (ed.), *Educational Psychology* (Third edition, New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1951).

such well-known works as the Lynds⁷³ and Gunnar Myrdal's comprehensive examination of the status of the Negro in America⁷⁴ and Mill's *White Collar*, which dissects the growing salaried segment of society.⁷⁵

Business administration is yet another example of fields contributing to education. Since its inception, school administration has deliberately patterned its behavior after that of business and industry. Pioneer studies in human relations, often associated with Elton Mayo, and followed up by years of patient analysis by members of the Harvard University's Graduate School of Business Administration, has brought to light many insights which have direct implications for the modern school administrator.⁷⁶ Other examples of progress in this field that will be of great help to the leader may be found in Chase's pleasantly written digest of advances in the area of the scientific study of mankind and of human relations.⁷⁷

A slim book, *Education and the Nature of Man*, by Kelley and Rasey, provides a happy blend of engaging style and information pertaining to the contributions of research in fields other than education. "Man," they note, "has been busy inquiring into his own nature and that of the universe in which he must survive or perish."⁷⁸ For a stimulating and compact digest of man's knowledge ranging ". . . over many fields—medicine, physiology, psychology, psychiatry, sociology, anthropology, physics, chemistry, biology, astronomy . . ."⁷⁹ the reader is referred to this small book. Their development of the interdisciplinary contributions with implications for education is a laudable collection of "infinite riches in a little room."

⁷³ Robert and Helen Lynd, *Middletown*, and *Middletown in Transition* (New York, Harcourt, Brace and Co., 1929 and 1939, respectively).

⁷⁴ Gunnar Myrdal, *An American Dilemma* (New York, Harper and Brothers, 1944).

⁷⁵ C. W. Mills, *White Collar* (New York, Oxford University Press, 1951).

⁷⁶ F. J. Roethlisberger and W. J. Dickson, *Management and the Worker* (Cambridge, Harvard University Press, 1939). Also cf. reference to Dubin in the chapter bibliography.

⁷⁷ Stuart Chase, *The Proper Study of Mankind* (New York, Harper and Brothers, 1948).

⁷⁸ Earl C. Kelley and Marie I. Rasey, *Education and the Nature of Man* (New York, Harper and Brothers, 1952), p. 16.

⁷⁹ *Loc. cit.*

SUMMARY

For his outward success and inner personal-professional security the creative educational leader, whether in classroom or school office, whether interacting with laymen, with teachers, or with children, needs to know something of the research studies and tools which serve as bricks and mortar in the complicated structure of present-day education. To suggest some of the skills and knowledges of the professional, and to propose how to go about acquiring them, has motivated Chapter Three.

Various elements influencing educational policies and practices were presented with the urgent suggestion that present and potential administrators rely on data rather than hunches when seeking to make leadership contributions. Thereafter, various kinds of research, with their strengths and shortcomings were discussed.

The concluding portion of the chapter examined certain writings and researches typical of those with which the leader should become conversant. The curriculum, human development, school organization, skill subjects, and socio-cultural environment were headings under which a sampling of research was grouped. Concluding reference was made to the growing interest in interdisciplinary research contributions to education.

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CHAPTER FOUR

LEADERSHIP AT WORK IN THE IMPROVEMENT OF TEACHING



Nearly two generations ago a perceptive and influential educator, Frederic Burk,¹ wrote an article, "The Withered Heart of the Schools,"² in which he expressed deep concern for the low morale of teachers. Too many teachers suffer from dry rot, he lamented, and such teachers ". . . will chill the fire in a January stove . . . and will furrow the brow of a happy barefoot boy. . . ."³ In the classroom:

"She rings the bell, calls the roll, and hears the spelling and arithmetic with the same spirit in which she counts the linen for the wash. At best her brow wears the gloom of forced duty . . ."⁴

Probably in the years before Burk's time, and certainly in the years since he penned his essay, the question of how to build and maintain teacher morale has taxed the ingenuity of educational leaders. A school staff capable of working coöperatively,

¹ Two students upon whom he left an indelible impress: Helen Parkhurst of Dalton Plan fame, and Carleton Washburne who piloted the Winnetka, Illinois, schools to national recognition in the 1920's.

² Frederic Burk, "The Withered Heart of the Schools," *Educational Review*, December, 1907, pp. 448-458.

³ *Ibid.*, p. 448.

⁴ *Loc. cit.*

effectively, and with a sense of cheerful dedication is wonderful to behold. But what keeps out the dry rot that alarmed Burk? Teamwork? Satisfaction in work well done? Good leadership? Or is it a combination of all of these factors?

STIMULATING THE CREATIVE POWER OF TEACHERS

The ability to encourage and aid teachers to work creatively is probably the most important contribution of an able administrator. In many districts, unfortunately, school administrators have followed uncritically the practices they supposed were most honored in business and industry. They prided themselves on being "efficient" and "business-like" in their relations with teachers and other workers in the schools. Ironically, while industry has become acutely aware of human relations, many school leaders remain ignorant of the revolutionary changes in management's concepts of leadership and group processes. As Dubin has pointed out in his sociological analysis of business administration, there has been a pronounced growth on the part of managers in recognizing "organization as a social system."⁵ And, he notes, ". . . what is said about business organizations applies equally well to all kinds of formally constituted groups."⁶ Clearly, if educational leadership is to learn from the conclusions business and industry have reached as a result of research in human engineering, consideration should be given to managerial thinking of the mid-1950's rather than of the early 1920's.

Motivating Professional Growth Through a Good School "Climate." The revolutionary results of experiments conducted to discover what motivates workers in industry, begun in the late 1920's, have been little publicized and are not well-known among educators. Space does not permit a detailed description of these experiments, but both potential and matur-

⁵ Robert Dubin, *Human Relations in Administration* (New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1951), p. 17.

⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 18.

ing educational leaders can ill afford to be ignorant of their deep implications for group morale and effective group action. The reader is referred to Roethlisberger and Dickson's⁷ detailed and accurate account of the entire project over a five-year span of intensive investigation and analysis. In brief, the project was begun in order to discover what caused individuals to produce at increasingly efficient levels.

Six girls in the Hawthorne plant of the Western Electric Company were chosen at random and submitted to a variety of changes in their working conditions: lighting, rest periods, length of the working day, and so forth. Regardless of the changes made, their hourly output increased. When all presumably desirable incentives designed to motivate production were summarily removed, the girls' output reached its highest peak!

Upon analysis, it was discovered that the six girls had coalesced into an informal group with its own internal morale. They became interested in the project and in each other. Without being aware of the fact, each girl achieved a new measure of respect for herself, and a feeling of importance to the project. This sense of identification with the job and with her associates was a most powerful motivating factor.

Chase⁸ in his summary of the project concludes that industry discovered two basic and allied principles:

First, make the worker realize that his work is important, and that he is important.

Second, accept the fact that a factory is a part of society, and under its roof society must function in its accustomed ways. Bands and teams and groups will form. They must be allowed for, utilized, and respected.⁹

During the years which have passed since this early experimental study of workers' behavior its implications have been applied to the stimulation of productive effort in numerous

⁷ F. J. Roethlisberger and W. J. Dickson, *Management and the Worker* (Cambridge, Harvard University Press, 1939).

⁸ Stuart Chase, *The Proper Study of Mankind* (New York, Harper and Brothers, 1948).

⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 141.

situations. In nearly every case, the same phenomena have been discovered—workers tend to organize into groups of people with emerging social purposes which often influence or dominate the behavior of the individual member. These groupings seem to fall into the following categories:

- (1) A "natural" team with rarely more than seven members;
- (2) A "family" group, with up to thirty members, where leaders guide the newcomers and less experienced;
- (3) An "organized" group deliberately set up by management to take advantage of this human urge.¹⁰

The parallel between the social organization of workers and the groupings one will find in school staffs seems obvious.

As a result of the tremendous amount of concentrated study focused on the problem of developing morale, this knowledge was put to work during World War II in the form of a set of instructions to foremen studying in the Job Relations Course of the Training Within Industry programs of the War Man-power Commission:

Let each worker know how he is getting along.

Give credit when due; tell him while it's "hot."

Tell people in advance about changes that will affect them.

Tell them why.

Look for ability not now being used.

People must be treated as individuals, not numbers on the payroll.

In any given problem, first, GET THE FACTS, then weigh and decide and only then TAKE ACTION. Afterwards be sure and check results.¹¹

It seems likely that the effective operation of a school could be enhanced if the educational leader would more widely recognize the importance of these six guides to action and use them for a basis for his relationships with the staff.

Evolving concepts of better human relations have not been ignored entirely by the educational profession, of course, al-

¹⁰ *Op. cit.*, p. 143.

¹¹ *Op. cit.*, p. 145.

though there probably is a distinct need for wider application. Within the profession, Raths has analyzed the basic drives which motivate individuals and has identified the following human needs which, as they are met, should result in an improved "school climate":

- (1) Feeling of belonging
- (2) Feeling of achievement
- (3) Feeling of economic security
- (4) Feeling of freedom from fear
- (5) Feeling of love and affection
- (6) Feeling of freedom from guilt
- (7) Feeling of sharing and self-respect
- (8) Feeling of understanding.¹²

The 1949 Yearbook of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development presents an analogous list with respect to pupils, pointing out that school situations should serve in the process of:

- Fostering security and satisfaction
- Promoting cooperative learning
- Helping pupils develop self-direction
- Fostering creativity
- Helping pupils discover values
- Providing opportunities for social action
- Helping pupils evaluate learnings.¹³

It is more than mere coincidence that, wherever one turns for evidence as to what motivates human behavior—whether it be industry, education, or the social environment—one encounters similar conclusions.

School "climate" is directly related to the *social* climate. In turn, the social climate is indisputably related to the factor of morale. As has been concluded elsewhere:

Group morale comes in a situation in which the members have been invited to share in making plans, in determining the pro-

¹² Louis Raths, *An Application to Education of the Needs Theory* (New York, School of Education, New York University, 1949), pp. 6-18.

¹³ The Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1949 Yearbook, *Toward Better Teaching: A Report of Current Practices* (Washington, D. C., The Association, 1949), p. 3.

cedures to be used, and in having some chance to determine the efficacy of the results.¹⁴

Human beings stubbornly insist upon remaining human in any context. By paying strict attention to these human factors the educational leader will appreciably strengthen his contribution to the improvement of teaching and learning.

What Can Teachers Expect of Administrative-Supervisory Leadership? Wiles, in a survey of over 1,000 students in his graduate discussion groups, found that the following were most frequently listed as job satisfactions:

- (1) security and a comfortable living, (2) pleasant working conditions, (3) a sense of belonging, (4) fair treatment, (5) a sense of achievement and growth, (6) recognition of contribution, (7) participation in deciding policy, and (8) opportunity to maintain self-respect.¹⁵

These factors are closely related to those listed by Raths in his summary of basic drives. It would be difficult to avoid the conclusion that these elements are basic to all human beings in whatever milieu they are found. They apparently present a clear picture of what human beings expect of leadership.

Teachers will, beyond question, work best under conditions which they recognize as fostering their maximum growth and satisfaction. While job security and what teachers call a "comfortable living" may often be placed first on the list, there is reason to believe that these are not always their primary consideration in remaining in a given school. Teachers whose sense of values have been sharpened by experiences in teaching situations where only these guarantees are present are quick to recognize that "money isn't everything." Pleasant working conditions are likely to prove at least as potent as financial reward as attractions in a job. It would not be unusual for a teacher who was offered the choice of positions, one in a modern up-to-date school and the other in a run-down decrepit pile of bricks

¹⁴ Wilbur A. Yauch, *Improving Human Relations in School Administration*, *op. cit.*, p. 26.

¹⁵ Kimball Wiles, *Supervision for Better Schools* (New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1950), p. 40.

or lumber, to select the more pleasing and attractive environment, even at a somewhat lower salary. The good "human" environment, one with a high quality of interpersonal relations, is even more sought after by the insightful teacher.

A sense of belonging is a powerful force in bringing satisfaction to the teacher. All human beings wish to feel that they "belong"; that they are important to the welfare and the success of the group. The Western Electric experiments indicate that this is the most important single factor in increasing the productive drive of workers. Fair treatment probably is directly related to the individual teacher's subjective interpretation of what is "fair"; but in all cases it is important that, insofar as possible, treatment should be equitable and evenly distributed. No group, whether it be teachers or people in other walks of life, will long tolerate the "fair-haired boy," the "teacher's pet," or any other recipient of special favors. Favoritism inevitably creates harmful effects on group solidarity and personal satisfaction. Often the apportioning of duties and responsibilities *by the teachers themselves* is likely to foster better morale than the best of administrative decisions arbitrarily made.

Growth on the job, with a conscious recognition of that progress, is a consequential ingredient in personal and professional satisfaction. Mursell contends, for example, that improvement in learning is directly proportionate to the knowledge the learner has of his growth. He concludes that:

- (1) Learning should always be organized in such a way that the learner is aware as specifically and fully as possible of the results he is attaining.
- (2) Learning should be organized in such a way that the learner is made aware of the results he is achieving while the job is going on.
- (3) The results of which the pupil is made aware must be the results he wants to attain, or his awareness of them will have very little effect of any kind.¹⁶

It is a safe assumption that what works well for children in

¹⁶ James L. Mursell, *Successful Teaching: Its Psychological Principles* (New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1946), pp. 269-270.

the classroom is equally valid in principle when applied to teachers in the school as they attempt to improve the quality of their contribution. It should be noted that Mursell, in his second point, stresses the importance of the learner being made aware of his progress *at the time it is occurring*. Leaders, in their association with teachers, might well take note of this point so that they will be generous in their recognition of teacher contributions at the time when it is most effective.

Widely supported in the literature is the view that democracy is best served when those affected by a decision have a share in determining what it shall be.¹⁷ Teachers with whom the authors are acquainted seem heartily to endorse this basic principle. No one likes arbitrarily to be told what to do—especially when he has developed some critical judgment concerning the matter to be decided. It has on occasion been averred by administrators that teachers *do* "want to be told." This statement has truth in it only when a leader unwisely confronts his staff with decisions about which it has no strong feeling or conviction, or about which it lacks the necessary information with which to reach a decision. Try to dominate teachers on matters about which they have adequate knowledge or a definite disposition, and the desire to participate is profoundly evident—unless a staff has been intellectually incapacitated by poor administrative direction.

Self-respect is a basic need of all human beings. Snygg and Combs¹⁸ have argued convincingly that the search for self-respect is the well-spring of all behavior. An individual spends a lifetime achieving "self-concepts" based on those aspects of behavior which have brought satisfaction and a feeling of success. Without self-respect a person is a poor specimen of humanity. With it, providing it is based on demonstrated merit, it is difficult to predict the frontiers of achievement to which human action will be carried.

¹⁷ For example, cf. L. Thomas Hopkins, *Interaction: The Democratic Process* (Boston, D. C. Heath and Co., 1941), p. 103, and C. E. Merriam, *The New Democracy and the New Despotism* (New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1939).

¹⁸ Donald Snygg and Arthur W. Combs, *Individual Behavior: A New Frame of Reference for Psychology* (New York, Harper and Brothers, 1949).

In general, then, teachers have a right to expect from leadership a personally rewarding environment in which they may grow and develop as responsible adults who are responsible in guiding the children they teach. To a notable extent, as the qualities and circumstances teachers hope for become realities in their jobs, it may be expected that schools will have more staff members who exemplify the following description of the good teacher:

The teacher, it seems obvious, must be a cultured person, able adequately to represent and interpret the society in which his pupils are attempting to find places. . . . They must have enough knowledge of human nature and of the social and physical environment to assist their individual students to discover more effective ways of solving their problems and satisfying their needs. They must have skills and personal characteristics which make them accepted and respected by their students and the community. But, above all, they must have a genuine respect for the potentialities and personal worth of each student and a corresponding interest in and sympathy with his strivings for self-maintenance and self-enhancement. . . .¹⁹

Supervision which stimulates teachers to become creative and cultured persons who can interpret society to children and youth clearly is one of the qualities of creative leadership.

NEW INSIGHTS INTO SUPERVISION

The position of the supervisor was established, in its modern sense, between 1915 and 1925. Although the position remains, the interpretations of supervisory responsibilities have changed drastically since 1935.

From Director to Guide. During the early 1920's, when the position of supervisor was in its adolescence, Burton²⁰ prepared one of the first statements of the functions of supervisors. In the double columns which follow an attempt is made to

¹⁹ *Op. cit.*, p. 243.

²⁰ W. H. Burton, *Supervision and the Improvement of Teaching* (New York, D. Appleton-Century Co., 1922), pp. 9-10.

compare his early views with more recent concepts of the work of the consultant. It should quickly be apparent that the trend is from the conception of the supervisor as *director* of instruction endowed with "super-vision" toward that of an able *guide* and colleague working to achieve educational goals shared by the staff.

*Early Concepts of
Supervisory Responsibility*

- (1) The supervisor is concerned with improving the teaching act. He visits classrooms, schedules individual and group conferences, directs teaching, arranges demonstrations, develops standards for staff improvement, etc.
- (2) The supervisor is responsible for in-service improvement. He presides at teachers' meetings, suggests professional reading, distributes bibliographies and bulletins, arranges visiting days, and offers analysis and criticism of teaching.

*Contemporary Concepts of
Consultant Services*

- (1) While concerned with better teaching and learning, the consultant's visits are less for inspection than to offer constructive help to teachers who recognize the need. Conferences often are requested by individuals and groups of teachers. The consultant participates, as circumstances permit, in teacher-pupil planning and may participate in classroom group work, as in the development, for instance, of a science experiment, or some enterprise in the social studies.
- (2) In-service practices and programs tend to be planned cooperatively by consultant and teachers, with the latter free to suggest ways in which their interests and purposes better may be served. The consultant more often coördinates than dictates activities. In-service work is continuous and usually recognizes that the teacher grows in stature by

- (3) The supervisor selects and organizes subject matter. He sets up objectives and selects learning activities, tests teaching materials, revises courses of study, and selects and evaluates supplementary materials.
- (3) The consultant assists teachers in selecting and organizing subject matter in coöperation with the children in the classroom. Objectives are coöperatively derived, often in consultation with parents and children. Courses of study are superseded by study outlines or guides which are developed by or with the staff. Materials of instruction are generally selected or approved by the entire staff. Supplementary materials are commonly chosen by the individual teacher with the help of the consultant available as needed to the less experienced.
- (4) The supervisor tests and measures pupil progress through standardized and locally developed classification tests. He uses or directs the use of diagnosis and guidance devices.
- (4) The consultant conceives various tests and appraisal instruments as subordinate to the comprehensive and continuous process of evaluation, a continuous part of the program through which teachers and consultant together study changes in the behavior of children, and seek to guide growth in channels consistent with the school's professional interpretation of socially desirable educational objectives.
- (5) The supervisor rates the (5) Rating scales are rarely used

*Early Concepts of
Supervisory Responsibility*

teacher through developing and using rating cards and check lists, and also stimulates self-rating.

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|---|---|
| <p>(6) No comparable function listed by Burton.</p> | <p>(6) The consultant frequently has contacts with parents in matters pertaining to educational counsel: interpretation of the program, leadership in study groups, discussion of children's problems, etc.</p> |
| <p>(7) No comparable function listed by Burton.</p> | <p>(7) The administration-supervision dichotomy is erased. Principals supervise as well as in-service consultants. Leadership of the teaching staff encompasses all phases of cooperative action: operation of the physical plant, planning the curriculum, dealing with parent and patron groups, etc.</p> |
| <p>(8) No comparable function listed by Burton.</p> | <p>(8) Teachers engage in supervisory or consultant activities with one another. Consultant service is employed from every available source, with one's fellow teachers often providing the most intimate and helpful kind.</p> |

*Contemporary Concepts of
Consultant Services*

by the consultant lest they lead to deterioration of good human relations or eventuate in a strained atmosphere during the consultant's work with the teacher in the classroom. Appraisal is informal and stresses professional, face-to-face analyses and personal-professional counsel.

At least three differences stand out in the above comparison. First, it is apparent that the shift is from direct, *autocratic* management of teachers to a coöperative *group* approach to improvement. Second, the list of modern functions of the consultant is longer because additional functions have been discovered and accepted during the 30-year period. Third, the descriptions of modern-day functions are longer because they are more involved in nature. It should be remembered that it is much easier and simpler to state autocratic relationships; the interactive and coöperative relationships are likely to involve more considerations.

It needs to be recognized that the descriptions given in Column II represent an interpretation which has been attained fully in only a few schools with financial resources to support adequate consultant services plus a viewpoint or philosophy which frees the consultant to function in the ways indicated. Perhaps it would be more realistic to point out that most schools will be found ranging somewhere between the two extremes, but with the trend of practice gravitating unmistakably in the direction of the position taken in the second column.

The Developing Role of the Consultant. Perhaps the most encouraging feature of the modern concepts of the techniques for improving teaching is the inexorable trend away from the notion that the responsibility and direction must reside in one person in authority. Instead, the idea is gaining acceptance that there should be a shift to many shoulders, each assuming a fair share of the burden. When an entire staff accepts responsibility for determining and directing children's educational experiences, anyone who can help the group or individuals in meeting this responsibility is considered a consultant *pro tem* and takes on the authority of merit.²¹ "Help," as used in the preceding sentence, does not imply dictation, and the entire group continuously retains the authority for deciding when tendered assistance is or is not helpful.

Thus, *consultant services* may be performed by any individual in the educational family: supervisors, principal, outside

²¹ See p. 12 for a previous interpretation of the "authority of merit."

"experts," and teachers. Furthermore, occasions will arise when parents and other laymen can serve admirably as consultants. It is important to note that under these circumstances the term "consultant" may be applied to many people other than the staff officer generally identified as "supervisor."

The trend away from a specially designated status person who controls the direction of in-service education has been a particularly profitable and fortunate movement in the many schools which are of moderate or small size. Here it has been a perennial contention of some administrators, often mirroring board of education views, that it is impossible to provide in-service help because the budget did not permit the employment of a special person for this service. In the light of the present discussion, the promise of considerable help in program development through the pooling of available resources clearly provides an answer to this problem.

The most hopeful phase of modern conceptions of teacher improvement is to be found in the dynamic practice of using teachers to help each other.²² When colleagues cooperate in helping one another to improve on the job through cooperative in-service assistance, the quality of classroom practice almost invariably takes a sharp turn upward.

BASIC SUPERVISORY RESPONSIBILITIES

Although the shift in emphasis is away from responsibility for supervision delegated to one person and toward the group dynamics concept, there is the danger that responsibility for quality performance will suffer. Whether the person responsible for the end-product of teaching is the local superintendent, the building principal, specially appointed supervisory consultants, or other teachers, the nature of the leadership function will largely determine the success of the program. A great deal has been said about respecting the individuality of teachers, and

²² Cf. Wilbur A. Yauch, *Improving Human Relations in School Administration* (New York, Harper and Brothers, 1949), pp. 126-128 for a discussion of the considerations involved in this kind of in-service activity.

working coöperatively with them in the development of suitable programs. However, unless educational anarchy is to result—with protection of incompetence being fostered through a pseudo-humanitarianism—it is essential to accept the idea that certain basic responsibilities for the over-all direction of the program reside in administrators and supervisory consultants.

Some Basic Leadership Responsibilities. Perhaps the single most important contribution of leadership is that of insuring that the group has a sense of order, a set of operational "rules of the game," which will facilitate and guide the work of the staff as it attempts to agree as to how best to achieve its shared values. In order to do this, the leader must possess to a high degree the ability to evaluate and discharge his responsibilities, among which are the following:

The leader is first and foremost responsible to the children whom the school serves. It is a truism to state that schools were instituted for the purpose of serving children's needs. One does not need to complicate his thinking by admitting that schools are also social agencies supported by the general public, and are, therefore, subservient to the wishes of the people. The so-called "general public" is composed of *both* children and adults. While both must be served, it is the *children* for whom the program is specifically intended. Teachers need to be constantly reminded that schools are for children, and that they should receive primary consideration when decisions are made. If critical choices between children's needs and public demands can be avoided, so much the better. But, when choices of the "either/or" type *must* be made, the leader should feel a deep responsibility for championing the rights of children. The nature of these rights is amplified in the next point.

The leader is responsible for knowing the basic patterns of development of children. In Chapter Three reference was made to the sources of information about children, and the basic facts of childhood which leaders should know. While it is asking a great deal of the leader to be intimately acquainted with the full details of information about children, it is reasonable to insist that he have a grasp of the basic nature of their development.

The leader is responsible for a knowledge and understanding of teachers as individual human beings, and of the factors which motivate their behavior. It is not enough for leaders to know members of the instructional staff as teachers. The nature of their relationships in the classroom and school may be quite different from those outside. It is not unusual for an individual teacher to present one kind of personality in school, and to reserve quite a different one for other social contacts and contexts. Unless the leader knows each member of the staff as a total personality, it will be difficult for him to have a full comprehension of the needs, urges, and drives of the people he is supposed to lead. Acceptance of this responsibility presupposes that the leader will have some measure of social contact with the teachers outside the school. In large school districts where the superintendent cannot hope to know each teacher well, this function may need to be delegated to the building principal.

The leader is responsible for an understanding of the community which the school seeks to serve. An individual school exists in a social environment which is unique to that school. While generalizations about communities may be made, differences among them often represent important factors to be considered. More will be said on this point in Chapter Six.

The leader is responsible for a knowledge of the basic cultural patterns which undergird American life. It is vitally important that the leader be a student of American democracy, and the basic cultural trends which are discernible through a study of our country's struggle toward maturity. If the schools are to serve as one of the agencies through which society attempts to improve itself, they must understand what constitutes its development, in what directions it is tending to go, and how the schools may help. While it is to be hoped that all members of the faculty will assume a large share of the responsibility for gaining this knowledge and understanding, it is particularly important that the leader be equipped to participate in group thinking which concerns itself with social change.²³

²³ The number of books to which the reader could be referred at this point are legion. Among those the authors have found of particular interest are: Margaret Mead, *And Keep Your Powder Dry* (New York, Morrow, 1942);

The leader is responsible for the level of professional discussion and for its effectiveness. As titular head of a school or school district, it is customary for the administrator to function in the position of discussion leader in staff meetings. Also, since there is no particular reason why a teacher might not assume this responsibility, the leader must be capable of helping him to function more effectively in this capacity. In either case, the leader, if staff meetings are to be productive and satisfactorily run, must know when and under what circumstances his leadership is needed and how the group members may be helped to achieve their best thinking.²⁴

The leader is responsible for the proper guidance of research activities. In addition to familiarity with research reports and techniques, as noted in Chapter Three, it is necessary for leaders to possess competency in the *use* of such findings, and to know how to help teachers conduct research of their own.

If research procedures and results are worth the effort, they should have considerable influence on the practices of teachers. Progress and improvement in teaching will be materially aided by a consistent application of the test of experience to classroom procedures. Knowing *about* research is the first step; proper application is an indispensable second step.

The leader can be of inestimable worth to the group if he further possesses the ability to help teachers see the opportunities for discovering local needs for research on such problems as grade placement, promotion, reporting to parents, beginning reading activities, evaluation of educational outcomes, etc.

Stuart Chase, *Goals for America* (Six Vols., New York, The Twentieth Century Fund, 1942); Robert Lynd, *Knowledge for What?* (Princeton, Princeton University Press, 1939); Harold Rugg, *Culture and Education in America* (New York, Harcourt, Brace and Co., 1931); George Counts, *Education and American Civilization* (New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1952).

²⁴ Excellent descriptions of discussion skills may be found in: Lyman and Ellen Judson, *Modern Group Discussion* (New York, Wilson and Co., 1937); R. D. Leigh, *Group Leadership* (New York, W. W. Norton, 1936); A. D. Sheffield, *Creative Discussion* (New York, The Inquiry, 1926); Ordway Tead, *The Art of Leadership* (New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1935); Frank Walser, *The Art of Conference* (New York, Harper and Brothers, 1933).

The leader is responsible for knowing the legal status of education and its organization. Schools operate within a legal framework which inexorably limits the freedom of the individual school or school system. In order that the school staff may function both effectively and within the law, it must be informed about the degree to which it has freedom under the state and local codes.

The leader is responsible for the coördination of the activities of all members of the professional staff. A total school "family" is composed of more than the classroom teachers, who work most closely with learners. Custodians, nurses, librarians, cafeteria workers, visiting teachers, supervisors of special subjects, and others are an integral part of the total group which comprises the working corps. Parents, too, can be considered as important adjuncts to the school staff. If the program of the school is to be of maximum benefit to children, it is imperative that all of the people concerned with their development be guided in a coöordinated effort.²⁵

The leader is responsible for knowing and understanding the basic considerations in curriculum development. The structure or framework around and in which learning occurs should be so designed that it meets the basic needs of children and of the community. The curriculum therefore may be expected to vary from time to time and from school to school, depending upon the unique needs of the community and children it serves. To assure adequate planning and effective execution of plans, the leader must be able to provide guidance to the group through his understanding of what constitutes the curriculum and how it may be developed. (Cf. Chapters Seven and Eight.)

The leader is responsible for exemplifying in his behavior the democratic values he hopes will motivate teachers. There is an old saying, "What you are speaks so loudly I cannot hear what you say." This applies with considerable force to the situation of the democratic leader. G. B. deHuszar²⁶ has made a neat

²⁵ Cf. Chapter Fourteen.

²⁶ George B. deHuszar, *Practical Applications of Democracy* (New York, Harper and Brothers, 1945), Chapter 2.

distinction between what he calls "talk-democracy" and "do-democracy." In all likelihood, most schools have had as much "talk-democracy" as is tolerable at present. What is desperately needed is exemplification of democracy in practice if it is to be more fully understood and learned.

This consideration of basic leadership responsibility began with a major emphasis: championing the rights of children. It seems appropriate to end with an equally compelling responsibility—that of acting on democratic values instead of merely verbalizing about them.

The Authority/Responsibility Dilemma. As was pointed out in Chapter One, a problem unique to creative leadership is the fact that, while the administrator may elect to invite teachers to share his responsibilities and help him to determine the nature of his duties, he alone must remain accountable for the excellence or deficiency in the school's operation. Legally, and in the eyes of the board of education and the community, responsibility attaches itself to him.

This creates a curious dilemma which many an administrator has attempted to resolve by insisting that, since the responsibility is his, the authority is his also. The end result of such reasoning has been autocratic domination of the group, however benevolent its intent.

More perceptive reflection on the dilemma might produce better answers. It is undeniably true that school administrators personally are charged with the responsibility of seeing that the school or school system operates in the best possible way. At the same time, no one—least of all the people of the community—*will demand that it be accomplished in any particularly specific way*. The operational choice remains with the leader as to the *methods* by which his responsibility is to be met. On the one hand he may decide that he is better equipped than the faculty as a whole to make all decisions for the group. Again, he may decide that group judgment and coöperative action will produce more salutary progress.

The choice should be made in terms of the results and not in terms of the processes. If, through able creative leadership, it is

possible to achieve a higher level of endeavor than authoritarian leadership permits, as is contended here, the administrator need have no fear that he will need to apologize to the board of education or the community for the quality of decisions and policy making in which the staff has shared. If made co-operatively and by a mature, professionally-minded teaching corps, group decisions are likely to be superior to any to which the administrator will come by unsupported judgment. The leader's responsibility, in the final analysis, rests in his obligation to provide the group with the kind of example and guidance that will result in decisions being made on an increasingly higher level of effectiveness.

The Leader's Value-Judgments and His Professional Integrity. As the administrator works with teachers on their mutual tasks, it is vitally important that he maintain an awareness of his values,²⁷ and, at the same time, be sure that the teachers are becoming more conscious of their own. The sources of the values which influence living are often ignored or are virtually unknown to the school personnel. This is true with respect to both their own values and those of children and their parents.

It will help leaders to become acquainted with a report by Trager and Yarrow which describes an attempt to study value clusters in order to discover what effect they have on children and the community.²⁸ As a result of their work in Philadelphia at the kindergarten-primary levels, the teachers involved were better able to set up a program calculated ". . . to help teachers to develop in young children the attitudes and behaviors basic to democratic living."²⁹

Findings from Trager and Yarrow suggest that one of the important responsibilities of the school is that of strengthening basic moral concepts.³⁰ Since the values of the individual, whether it be child, teacher, parent, layman, or professional leader, play an unquestionably formative role in determining

²⁷ Cf. Chapter Two.

²⁸ Helen G. Trager and Marian R. Yarrow, *They Learn What They Live: Prejudice in Young Children* (New York, Harper and Brothers, 1953).

²⁹ *Op. cit.*, p. 4.

³⁰ *Ibid.*, pp. 345-353.

what is accepted as good or worthwhile, it is particularly necessary that these values be understood. In the words of that perceptive philosopher, John L. Childs:

It is our conviction that any agency—private or public, ecclesiastical or secular—that undertakes to select and mediate human experience in order to provide for the nurture of immature human beings is engaged in the most fundamental of all moral activities of mankind.³¹

In order to enjoy professional integrity, and in order to be able to follow a consistent policy, the leader's acquisition of an understanding of his personal value-beliefs can be construed to be a basic supervisory responsibility.

PRINCIPAL-CONSULTANT RELATIONSHIPS

In nearly all school systems of appreciable size there are at least two types of workers who are directly charged with the improvement of teaching. One is the building principal, whether he teaches or not; the other is the consultant who is commonly attached to the central office staff. This second person may be a general consultant, or representative of one or more special areas: art, music, guidance, physical education, and so on. Regardless of the specific nature of the consultant's duties, a problem concerning the division of his labor responsibility with the building principal sometimes exists.

The problems which occasionally develop as these two types of persons attempt to work with teachers may reside in differing philosophies, competing educational psychologies, or conflicting personalities. They frequently result from the lack of clear policy on the part of administrative leadership. Trouble may also stem from vague or faulty decisions concerning who is charged with a particular group of responsibilities.

Division of Labor and Sharing of Responsibility. Proof that conflicts of the nature and kind mentioned above need not exist is to be found in the experience of those who have developed a

³¹ John L. Childs, *Education and Morals* (New York, Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1950), p. 5.

flexible policy, coöperatively determined, which governs the work of both principal and consultant. Difficulties are created by insistence upon *formal* and *status* relationships between the two and with teachers. When this situation prevails both principal and consultant jealously guard their prerogatives rather than pool their talents in a common cause. When it becomes apparent that the important consideration is the nature and quality of *leadership* which is provided teachers, it makes relatively little difference who supplies it under specific circumstances. At times it may be the principal who has the major contribution to offer; at other times the special consultant will be better able to help teachers in their work. Both should realize that the factors of *experience*, *insight*, and *ability* vary with individuals and conditions. The choice of who shall function in a given situation should be determined by the circumstances. It is this kind of flexible policy of coöperation which will produce wholesome results.

Who Shall Have Precedence in Determining Procedural Policies? When mature, professionally motivated principals and consultants seek to share responsibilities, most of the problems generated by what seem to be cross-purposes can be solved by coöperative discussion and action. Unfortunately, there are times when agreement is difficult to reach, when widely differing points of view seem irreconcilable. As a rule, the resolution of a particular conflict lies primarily with the principal, since he is the person most directly accountable for the work of a given school.

It makes a vast difference *how* these conflicts are solved. The future welfare of the whole school may well depend upon the administrator's skill in exercising discretion in the solution. If he is *primarily* concerned with the maximum development of the staff and its program he will choose that method which promises most in harmony, even if this involves the acceptance of a point of view radically different from his own. While it may be stated categorically that the principal should have the final voice in deciding policy, he will usually find that it is best not to use it. Instead, the teachers will be given the opportunity to

examine and test in experimental situations the worth of the opposing ideas of both principal and consultant.

THE ROLE OF HUMAN RELATIONS IN CREATING STAFF MORALE THROUGH INTELLIGENT SUPERVISION

Staff Morale and Pupil Morale. Earlier in the chapter reference was made to the importance of a good school-community "climate" for teachers. If the sole purpose in creating such an atmosphere was to produce wholesome working conditions for teachers so that they would be more satisfied with teaching, it would be relatively simple to achieve it. However, as has been repeatedly emphasized, schools are for children, and the measure of good schools is to be found in what happens to them. Ergo, the processes of building staff morale also should build pupil morale.

It must be granted at the outset that good staff morale is intimately related to good pupil morale. Teachers set the emotional tone of the school. Their work with children is governed by their own satisfaction and pleasures. It may also be expected that teachers will tend to treat children in ways which are analogous to those in which they themselves are treated. Good staff morale is one of the most effective and surest ways to produce a like effect in the classroom.

Common-sense Procedures Which Create Staff Morale. In his carefully written book on supervision, Bartky³² classifies seven types of supervision: (1) autocratic, (2) inspectional, (3) representative, (4) coöperative-democratic, (5) invitational, (6) scientific, and (7) creative.³³ After analyzing each type he concludes:

No movement for improving instruction is likely to get under way initially out of spontaneous action on the part of teachers. Every concept of supervision accepts the necessity for some

³² John A. Bartky, *Supervision as Human Relations* (Boston, D. C. Heath and Co., 1953).

³³ *Ibid.*, p. 14.

motivating force which initiates and perpetuates activities leading to better teaching. Custodianship of this force is placed in the hands of the individual who is designated to lead the program. However, the various schools of supervision advance quite different theories as to what the nature of this force shall be and how it may be applied.³⁴

Bartky's main thesis, it becomes apparent, is that circumstances alter cases. He scores heavily those advocates of any one type of supervisory panacea for all educational ills.³⁵ Perhaps administrators have erred in the matter of championing a special procedure in morale building to the exclusion of all other considerations. Seemingly, it makes less difference *what* method is used than *how* any of several defensible procedures are used. The test of good leadership lies in what happens to people in the process. Ultimately, the cooperative group approach is the best means of attaining both good morale and better teaching, the writers believe.

A common-sense approach to the problem of building good morale will probably include suggestions for practice from a great variety of procedures, with a major emphasis upon how people feel about them. If teachers long have been accustomed to being told what to do, it may be wise for the leader in a new position to increase participation in policy decisions over a period of months or years rather than to force reluctant participation when readiness for it has not yet been created.

One practical way in which leaders can strengthen staff morale is by finding some basis for appreciating each teacher for the contributions he is able to make to the program of the school. This proposal accepts the basic premise that each teacher normally is improvable and worthy of whatever effort is needed to strengthen his contributions to the school's activities. Once this position is taken, it merely remains for the leader to use whatever devices work to get improvement.

The procedures mentioned here are neither complex nor clever. They are, however, some of the down-to-earth ways

³⁴ *Op. cit.*, pp. 22-23.

³⁵ *Op. cit.*, cf. his Chapter II.

which leadership can use in creating staff morale through intelligent supervision:³⁶

Be willing to make haste slowly. Human nature can be modified but it requires time, effort, and well-designed modifying experiences. If the leader will be patient, and work for gradual change, there will be less concern and greater satisfaction in the process than if an upsetting, "revolutionary" tack is followed.

Take the easiest problems first. If teachers have opportunities to solve relatively simple problems first they may develop the skills and enthusiasm for problem-solving before confronted with more perplexing ones. The question of what to do about children throwing candy wrappers on the front lawn will, for instance, often precede any attempt to initiate an elaborate form of school government.

Treat people as human beings. Teachers are human beings first and teachers second. Their emotions, habits of behavior, and consciously or unconsciously held values are likely to determine their conduct more than verbalizing about educational philosophy. It is to be expected that they will share human frailties and inadequacies with other members of the human race.

Make their experiences in school pleasant. It is a fact of human behavior that one tends to repeat that which is pleasant and to avoid that which is unpleasant. If teachers are truly to enjoy their work, efforts must be made to see that the total environment for teaching is as pleasing as possible. Business and industry have learned the hard way that it is unprofitable to combat and resist the workers' request for reasonable changes in working conditions, even when some may appear inconsequential to management. A sensitive ear to the notions teachers may have concerning their working conditions can serve to good purpose in developing a rewarding school environment.

Operate on the assumption that teachers can be trusted. In some cases this may be a false assumption, but it is better to be

³⁶ Adapted from Wilbur A. Yauch, *op. cit.*, pp. 257-263.

occasionally disappointed than to live in an atmosphere of mistrust and suspicion.

Try a little of the "Golden Rule." Nothing is so influential as a first-hand example of what one is talking about. If democratic processes and actions are desired from teachers, the best way to get them is for leadership to live that way.

Encourage and accept criticism. It is well-nigh impossible for the leader to know what aspects of the program need change unless he can have some assurance that what the teachers report is an accurate account. If teachers are fearful of incurring administrative displeasure by being frank, it is natural for them to remain silent. Criticism, however negative or destructive, is information on which one can act. Also, leadership should bear in mind that disagreement with policies does not constitute *disloyalty*.

Don't act like a "stuffed shirt." The leader who stands on ceremony can sometimes bludgeon the staff into an outward demonstration of respect which conceals more than it reveals of the teachers' true feelings. Ceremony has the further detrimental characteristic of establishing a high wall of non-communication between administrators and teachers. If the principal personifies true merit which earns its own respect, he suffers no loss of caste when teachers treat him as "one of the gang."

CONSULTANT SERVICES AS UNIQUE TO INDIVIDUAL TEACHERS

Uniqueness in teachers is as much to be expected as individuality in children. It is curious to note that, while the literature about children constantly emphasizes their differences, the literature about teachers is more or less mute in this respect. Most books on educational leadership or practices fail to qualify the tacit assumption that teachers are alike. That such is not the case may be ascertained by a single visit to the nearest school.

Representative Types of Teachers. If the staff in any building is composed of a reasonably large number of teachers, say 15 or

20 or more, it is certain that one will find enormous differences existing among them. There will be the manifest differences in age, physical dimensions, and facial types. Less noticeable will be the differences in educational practices, and wholly unnoticeable but equally important, the under-the-skin differences in socio-cultural backgrounds, and value-sources.³⁷

Backgrounds of teachers have been shown to be tremendously diversified by such researchers as Coffman,³⁸ Moffett,³⁹ Kiely,⁴⁰ Elsbree,⁴¹ and Johnson.⁴² Teachers' psychological and personality differences also have been widely examined, for example, by Allard,⁴³ Greenhoe,⁴⁴ McGill,⁴⁵ Wood,⁴⁶ Menninger,⁴⁷ and Havighurst and Taba.⁴⁸ Menninger, for instance, has grouped teachers with maladjustments in seven types: (1) physically ill, (2) non-intelligent, (3) lonely, (4) queer, (5) frustrated, (6) moody, and (7) perverse.⁴⁹

In view of the tremendous human differences, varieties of

³⁷ Bartky, *op. cit.*, pp. 59-65.

³⁸ Lotus D. Coffman, *The Social Composition of the Teaching Profession* (New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1911).

³⁹ M'Ledge Moffett, *The Social Backgrounds and Activities of Teachers College Students* (New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1929).

⁴⁰ Margaret Kiely, *Comparisons of Students of Teachers Colleges and Students of Liberal Arts Colleges* (New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1931).

⁴¹ Willard Elsbree, *The American Teacher* (New York, American Book Co., 1939).

⁴² George H. Johnson, "General Backgrounds and Activities of Teachers," *School and Society*, 77:129-132, February 28, 1953.

⁴³ Lucile Allard, *A Study of the Leisure Activities of Certain Elementary Teachers of Long Island* (New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1939).

⁴⁴ Florence Greenhoe, "The Community Contacts of 9,122 Teachers Selected as a National Sample" (Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Ohio State University, 1937).

⁴⁵ K. H. McGill, "The School Teacher Stereotype," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 4:642-650, June 1931.

⁴⁶ M. M. Wood, *The Stranger: A Study in Social Relations* (New York, Columbia University Press, 1934).

⁴⁷ Karl A. Menninger, *The Normal Mind* (Third edition, New York, Alfred A. Knopf, 1949).

⁴⁸ R. J. Havighurst and Hild Taba, *Adolescent Character* (New York, Wiley and Sons, 1949).

⁴⁹ Menninger, *op. cit.*, p. 35.

temperament, physique, and general character that one finds in the average school, it is self-evident that teachers cannot be dealt with in terms of generalities based on a mythical "average." Like the American "average" family of 3.6 people, he simply does not exist! Each teacher must, therefore, be treated as an individual in terms of his unique needs.

Unique Supervisory Procedures for Unique Human Beings.

Any attempt to catalogue all of the variations in teacher personality and behavior would be both difficult and tedious. Grouping into categories inevitably requires concentration on the similarities of types, with the resultant unfortunate loss of consideration of their more important differences. One type of teacher, in real life, will shade into another, making the neat categories unrealistic and misrepresentative. And yet, for purposes of discussion, it seems desirable to point out some of the more common types of teachers one meets in school, and to discuss modifications of supervisory procedures in working with each of them. The reader is cautioned that the following stereotypes are chosen for illustrative purposes and fail to allow for the true range of individual personalities with which leadership interacts. It should also be re-emphasized that success in helping teachers with problems remains a highly individualized matter.

The insecure teacher. To some degree all teachers are insecure, as are all human beings in any walk of life. Feelings of insecurity in the teacher are especially important, however, because in his work with children his insecurity is often transmitted to those with whom he comes in contact. The precarious position of public education today, the uncertain economic status of the teacher, and the bewildering complexity of modern society may all be contributing factors to his insecurity. Whatever the cause, it is the question of what to do about it that supervisory leadership must answer.

The insecure teacher needs above all to find some source of assurance and confidence in his position and his work with boys and girls. The first step for the supervisor is usually to ascertain the major contributing factors to his insecurity. If they are

located outside the school situation, for example a heavy financial burden in maintaining a home, it is difficult to see how the leader can be of much assistance. Vigorous championing of better salary schedules may help, but the leader may not be in a position to do much good along this line.

Those contributing factors that lie in the school can be treated much more directly. If the teacher feels that he lacks status in the group, it may be possible to build up his competencies, or help eradicate some personal defect. Not all good supervisory help is related directly to improving specific classroom practices.

The poorly-prepared teacher. This second broad classification of teachers is one that is always with us. Fortunately, this is one group with which concrete action can be taken. If one is to take at face value the reactions of a few cynical school administrators, the large proportion of graduates of teacher education institutions may be placed in this category! More seriously, it seems true that every teacher is to some extent poorly prepared for the *specific responsibility* he assumes in a new school.

Treating these teachers as a class is likely to result in a failure. For each teacher is unprepared in quite a different way. One may be vague in her thinking as to how to initiate a first-grade reading program. Another may feel uncertain as to how to deal with the lively behavior of dynamic childhood. After a detailed analysis of the location and extent of the specific difficulty, the leader is in a position to help the individual teacher strengthen his contribution through concrete suggestions and professional assistance. It may be observed in passing that lack of preparation may be one of the major causes of the feeling of insecurity mentioned above.

The conservative teacher. As here used, conservatism refers to the tendency to stick to the "tried and true" as more comfortable and tested than the uncertain adventure of trafficking in new educational methods. This class of teacher probably is representative of a substantial minority of school people. It is understandable that many educators are motivated by the desire to avoid the public criticism sometimes directed at pro-

grams which deviate from the conventional. While the behavior of some teachers is influenced by the wish to avoid insecurity, others simply prefer the conventional because they honestly believe it is best.

In either case, it is important that leaders avoid lashing out at teachers of conservative bent so violently that they contribute to feelings of insecurity. Every teacher should be guaranteed the right to make progress at his own unique rate, with assurance and encouragement to hold to what he believes until his convictions change.⁵⁰ At the same time, leadership needs to avoid rationalizing its own conservatism through the contention that the staff (or community) "won't be ready for any changes for ten years."

The experimentally-minded teacher. At the opposite end of the philosophical and emotional spectrum is the teacher who is always ready for change, who is impatient with the old order, and who conceives almost any change as an improvement. This type of individual is rather rare. In operation he often represents an imagined, and sometimes real, threat to the security and values of his associates. It is important to know and respect his motivations, and to provide guidance so that a sense of the importance of working with others less ready to change can be achieved without too serious a loss of his drive and enthusiasm. It is well to examine with him the validity of his proposals and help him to fit them into the framework of the staff's values. Often the experimentally-minded teacher is a great resource and one to be prized.

The frustrated teacher. Frustration may be the result of many causes. Financial problems sometimes are the source. Failure to find a satisfactory spouse, sex difficulties, family troubles, or unhappiness in the job are other examples. For certain teachers it may be any one or all of them in combination.

Within the limits imposed by social acceptability it is mandatory that the dammed up emotional longings be satisfied. Frus-

⁵⁰ An excellent discussion of the techniques for changing teacher behavior may be found in George Sharp, *Curriculum Development as Re-education of the Teacher* (New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1951).

trations beyond the confines of social acceptability must be sublimated so that the teacher may operate in a wholesome personal environment. So long as the person is faced with intense emotional problems which interfere with professional competence he is both a difficulty and an opportunity for service to the administrator.

In all of the types of cases described above it is apparent that leadership is challenged with problems which go beyond a conventional interpretation of professional responsibility. Personal problems are fully as immediate and absorbing as pedagogic ones. As leadership becomes more alert and willing and capable of interacting with teachers as uniquely individual, more rapid gains will be made in the development of a better educational program.

THE USE OF GROUP PROCESSES AS A SOURCE OF AUTHORITY FOR SUPERVISORY-CONSULTANT LEADERSHIP

It may appear from the foregoing that leaders have an all but insoluble task in dealing with such variations in human behavior as those suggested above. If leadership were concerned solely with guidance of individuals in isolation this would undoubtedly be true. However, much help may be found in the development of the group approach to the problems of supervisory leadership.

Each individual is indisputably a product of his social environment to some degree, and his problems are partly the result of inadequacies in that environment. The creation of a new social environment which possesses new, dynamic elements for re-education may be a fruitful remedy for many of the personal or professional defects in people.

Coöperation in a Common Cause. Allport⁵¹ has identified one of the main obstacles to change as emotional antagonism to change itself. He has further suggested that a catharsis be pro-

⁵¹ Gordon W. Allport, "Catharsis and the Reduction of Prejudice," *The Journal of Social Issues*, 1:7, August, 1945.

vided by which it may be reduced. Sharp⁵² goes on to point out that:

. . . the modern approach to education calls for emotionally mature teachers who are able to make responsible decisions on their own without leaning on authority. In moving from the traditional to the modern approach, it is the responsibility of the curriculum worker to permit to develop only the kind of relationship that will foster initiative and self-decision. In doing this he should keep in mind the subtle power of his status, the need for control of his own emotions, the need to avoid making unnecessary decisions, and the need to base decisions on rational, visible, and accessible data while providing a channel for change and an *outlet for the emotions aroused by the decision.*⁵³

Leaders will be able to deal more effectively with the great variety of teacher personalities and problems through a group atmosphere structured to facilitate the solution of educational problems. In such an environment, decisions which govern the conduct of all may be coöperatively determined, particularly when the authority for decisions lies with the group itself. This approach may be utilized in weaving the human differences together so that the group can work as an effective unit. It is an approach which spares the leader the danger of a schism between proponents and opponents of *his* ideas because through the group procedure they become the staffs' (i.e., "our") ideas.

Interaction and Supervision. All elements considered, the group decision is a particularly strong source of authority for the supervisor. His hand is strengthened by the fact that the occasionally uncoöperative teacher is not his *personal* opponent in resisting policies but is aligned against the entire majority which shaped a given policy. Few teachers are so intransigent as to resist the weight of authority that comes from peers through group processes.

The leader who is anxious to give maximum encouragement to the individual teacher's development would do well to in-

⁵² Sharp, *op. cit.*

⁵³ *Ibid.*, p. 54. (Italics not in original.)

vestigate the promise of the group approach to the solution of individual problems.

SUPERVISION THROUGH PARTICIPATION

The consultant services which leave the greatest impress on the lives of classroom teachers are those which are carried on naturally and normally during the course of an average day's work in school. The leader's daily contacts with teachers, and the quality and character of those contacts, add up to the sum total of his contribution. The more formal procedures, such as classroom visits, teacher conferences, and study groups, are considerably less influential in changing behavior than are the intimate, helpful associations which occur through the effort to help the teacher with his individual problems.

The Supervising Principal and His Special Talents. No hard and fast rules or suggestions can be given concerning the kind of practical assistance principals can daily give to teachers. It makes a vast difference what the "special talents" of the individual principal are. It is as true of principals as it is of teachers that uniqueness is no respecter of persons. It may be that the principal is specially adept at running and repairing projectors so that children can broaden their understanding through the use of motion pictures. He may be specially interested in science, and can help the teacher or work with children in the preparation of demonstrations and experiments. Perhaps he has travelled extensively so that he can bring first-hand experiences to the children about foreign lands and people. The specific nature of his talents are less important than his ability to bring to the classroom some added feature which enhances the children's learning. It is this concept of the principal "supervising while he serves" that introduces a new, dynamic ingredient into the supervisor-teacher relationship.

The Consultant's Role in Supervising Through Participation. No less important is the notion that consultants other than the principal can contribute directly to the quality of the individual teacher's program through participation in the teaching act. It

is to be hoped that the consultant's contributions will differ importantly from those of the principal so that the accumulation of separate and unique contributions will serve to enrich the classroom program. In view of this concept the more people involved in direct contacts with the teacher and children the greater the potential enrichment of the program. It is through this approach that the possibility of over-lapping of function between principal and consultants can be resolved or avoided as each participates in the activities to which he can best contribute.

Experience and Maturity as Elements Influencing Supervision. It is so true as to be trite to point out that the contributions either principals or consultants make to the on-going program in the classroom will be directly related to their experience and maturity. The richer the experience, the greater the insights that come from mature conceptions of education, the more valuable will be the contribution.

Professional educators, whether they be principals, superintendents, consultants, or teachers, when they combine their efforts in the interests of children, can be expected to enrich learning to the limit of their capabilities. In the "happy" school less emphasis is placed on status and rank and more is placed on functional effectiveness.

LEADERSHIP AS UNIQUE TO SITUATIONS

Emphasis has been given to the point that teachers, principals, and consultants are uniquely individual. Now conceive of this great diversity with respect to the tens of thousands of American school situations, and add to them the uniqueness of individual parents and other community members. Envision the specific differences of varied socio-cultural environments, and it is easy to recognize that in each school conditions, qualities, and characteristics are without duplicate anywhere else. While certain generalizations may be made about all schools (i.e., teachers and children are present, they live and learn in a school building, they follow some systematic curriculum structure,

etc.), it is impossible to be more specific without doing violence to the fact that *differences* exist, and make each school distinct from all others.

Consider one segment of a state which Dr. George Gallup, the opinion poll expert, has characterized as the most representative of the union as a whole—namely, the Ohio side of the Ohio River. A number of these towns share many similar topographical features: close to the river in the “flats” region often lie the industries and low economic level homes. Rising back of this region the hills sweep upward away from the river, and are dotted with the homes of those escaping the low lying fog of the valley. The correlation between economic level of the home and the elevation level from the river is fairly high; the higher one finds the home, the greater the likelihood that the family is economically more privileged.

As one would expect, there are schools serving all areas of the towns. Now compare the situations with respect to the schools in the industrial regions with those on the hill-top. Children in the flats usually come to school with radically different backgrounds from those on the heights. The family attitudes toward schools vary widely, and the teachers face quite different challenges to their teaching skills. It is not unusual for school administrators to take the attitude that a new teacher should first be placed in the less desirable “poor” districts in order “to win his spurs” and be “promoted” to the more desirable schools on the hill.

Education of the economically privileged and of the less fortunate involves different considerations in each school situation. Many hill-top children have travelled widely, their homes possess modern conveniences and, as a rule, educational stimulation as well. The level of cultural interests and activities of the parents tends to be high. Down in the valley one may expect to find some of the environmental elements which contribute to delinquency and crime.

It would require an individual who is indeed educationally insensitive to insist that the programs of these two divergent schools be alike; that children “need” the same kind of edu-

tion, or that it is "fair" to treat them as if they were alike. It would take a person equally indifferent to the effects of the experience of working with these different kinds of children to conclude that it would have no effect upon teachers' personality or their general outlook on and insights into the importance of education.

Uniqueness in the two contrasting school situations is easy to observe because they are so widely separated in a socio-cultural sense. Lying between these two extremes are the majority of the schools in the United States, shading in a spectrum of adequacy from one extreme to the other. However small or great the difference may be between or among any of the schools in which he works, the mature leader recognizes it and strives with the staff to shape policies which do so and are adaptable to the nature of a sound and workable school program.

Truly, as leadership works at the improvement of teaching there is little if anything more important than an active awareness of the individuality of human beings and of the situations on which it leaves its impress. The application of intelligence to the demanding problems of diversity—effectively, patiently, with courage and faith in the power of education—is one of the hallmarks of great leadership.

SUMMARY

This chapter has been concerned with the work of those who strive to improve the work of the teacher, whether it be superintendent, principal, consultant, or other teachers. Stress was placed on the importance of creating a good "climate" as an environmental stimulus to growth. Attention also was drawn to the new insights which have been recently gained concerning what most effectively motivates behavioral change.

A list of specific supervisory responsibilities was presented in order to focus attention on the fact that leadership has a definitive role to play in determining the quality of changes effected in school programs. The work of the supervisor was

depicted as both demanding and rewarding in the processes of assisting members of the teaching group toward competence and knowledge indispensable to continuing development. The privilege of building morale and group spirit was considered as a particularly important function of the leader.

In all situations where more than one person attempts to provide a group with leadership there is the inevitable problem of division of responsibility. Recognizing this, the problems of shared leadership were examined, especially as they concern the principal and supervisory consultant.

Pronounced emphasis was placed on the fact that human beings and school situations alike are unique, and that success in the improvement of teaching is dependent upon recognition of this fact, with due regard given to it in the determination of specific activities in which leadership engages.

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CHAPTER FIVE

LEADERSHIP IN THE EVALUATION OF TEACHING AND LEARNING



IT IS literally impossible for a person to exist without continually making evaluations. Every time one makes a choice, consciously or unconsciously, judgments are involved which call for a value to be placed on the alternatives. Since life is a succession of decisions, evaluations are the perpetual lot of all mankind. This is notably true with respect to educational leadership.

The realistic question which faces administrators and supervisory consultants is not whether evaluations will be made, but on what basis and under what conditions one shall act on the choices before him. The ability to make judgments based on sound values has been recognized as important at least as far back as Aristophanes' time, when he wrote in his satiric play, *The Frogs*:

Happy is the man possessing
The superior holy blessing
Of a judgment and a taste
Accurate, refined and chaste.¹

¹ Aristophanes is estimated to have lived from 448-380 b.c. Quotation translated by John Hookman Frere (1769-1846).

And happy indeed is the educational leader whose ability to gauge teaching and learning is accurate and refined—and “chaste” in the sense of virtuous and simple in design or expression.

CHANGING INTERPRETATIONS OF APPRAISAL

In the early days of public education in America there doubtless was less conflict than at present in the minds of leaders regarding their function as evaluators. They were satisfied that any education program must be subject-centered and morally oriented. This the leader prescribed and employed teachers to execute. Whether or not the teachers succeeded or failed was determined entirely by the *leader's* judgment as to what constituted competence. Teachers were summarily fired for what the leaders construed to be poor instruction, or were given salary increases if they measured up to what the leader thought was successful practice. Barr, Burton, and Brueckner conclude that this unquestioned acceptance of the leader's responsibility for appraisal and direction of the program led to a type of practice which they characterize as (1) inspectorial, (2) teacher-focused, (3) involving visitation and conference, (4) random and haphazard, (5) imposed and authoritarian, and (6) usually performed by one person.² The shift in emphasis is from this orientation to that of the modern conception that “the improvement of teachers is not so much a supervisory function in which teachers participate as it is a teacher function in which supervisors coöperate.”³

The trends in the attitudes toward improvement of teaching are logically paralleled by similar trends with regard to determining the direction or quality of teaching. This evolutionary change in the concept of appraisal may be conveniently divided into three overlapping phases:

- (1) The traditional notion that the leader, whether principal,

² A. S. Barr, W. H. Burton and L. J. Brueckner, *Supervision* (Second edition, New York, Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1947), p. 13.

³ *Op. cit.*, p. 10.

superintendent, or supervisor, establishes the program and makes unilateral, subjective, moral-academic judgments of teacher success (1800-1920).

- (2) The advent of the "scientific" movement in education which led to reliance on rating scales, check lists, and "controlled measurement" as a basis for making decisions about teachers (1915-1945).
- (3) The appraisal of teaching efficiency through the leadership function of helping teachers to be self-evaluative in coöperative group situations (1935 to date).

Appraisal Through Omnipotence. For most of the schools' history in the United States it has been tacitly assumed that the head teacher was endowed with sufficient competence to "know all the answers." He was expected to be the best teacher, capable of demonstrating the correct way to teach, and to be the final arbiter of what constituted "good" teaching. His professional judgments called for the omniscience of Jove and the wisdom of Solomon.

That this identification of leadership with omnipotent power is not entirely dead may be found in the continuing existence of rating scales for leaders to use in judging the competence of their teachers. Not too many years ago, specifically in 1950, a state department of education in an eastern state continued to issue a rating scale on which teachers received points up to a total of 100 percent for such virtues as "good classroom management." The supervisor's or rater's subjective judgments were the basis for justification of the score. As a further illustration, all teachers in a certain state have been required by law since 1950 to be subjected to administrative judgments of their competence as a basis for salary increases.

The reaction against the unwarranted assumption of omniscience led to attempts, particularly after 1920, to establish more scientifically valid and defensible bases for appraisal. A multitude of rating scales, check lists, jury-judgments, and elaborate analyses of the teaching act were devised, with appropriate correlations, statistical analyses, and mathematical formulas attempting to control the judgments made.

Fortunately, the confidence placed in mechanistic appraisal was short-lived. It became apparent in a few years that "improved" rating scales were simply a refinement of an original error. If the basis for judgment was to be human subjectivity, it made little difference whether or not the instrument for the collection of the evidence was objectively constructed: the value-judgments remained subjective. After the evidence was in, it still had to be *evaluated* by fallible humans.

Practical Impediments to "Omniscience." It seems almost an elaboration of the obvious to summarize objections to the "all-seeing" approach to program and staff appraisal. Yet the practice of judging teachers has proved so durable, and has lingered so long after the heyday of the theory supporting it, that it seems desirable to put additional emphasis upon its inadequacy.

Even assuming an educational leader with great vision and creative ability, it is difficult to imagine that his values are consistently the best that can be devised. "To err is human . . ."! Also, the administrator's ability to make fully adequate judgments is limited by its derivation from his own experiences. No person in a position of leadership has experience of such breadth as to justify the view that he can rate the quality of social living in the kindergarten and aesthetic experiences of children in the arts and, with equal validity, appraise the development of skills and knowledges during the wide span of the elementary-junior high school years. Such a view ignores the fact that the background of even the most able administrator or consultant does not know all there is to know about teaching and learning at all levels through which the child passes.

An even more practical impediment to the leader's arbitrary appraisal of teaching is found in the simple fact that no leader can hope to find enough time to visit a teacher often enough to achieve a completely accurate perspective of his work. What one sees is bound to be only a glimpse of the whole picture of the teacher's true contribution to children's progress, with no assurance that the glimpse is representative.

Acquaintance with the customary sequence of professional progress which many principals and supervisors follow casts

further doubt on the wisdom of expecting them to be omniscient. Principals ordinarily attain their positions by the process of demonstrating superior ability in any one of several *limited* areas: coaching, supervision of some special area, successful grade or subject teaching, etc. In nearly every case it would be difficult for the leader to claim first-hand experience with *all* levels of teaching and *all* areas of competence. How, for instance, can a one-time physics teacher, when transferred to the superintendency or principalship, suddenly be expected to evaluate the effectiveness of beginning reading experiences the first-grade teacher is endeavoring to create for six-year-olds?

Younger administrators and consultants, however bright their promise, inevitably tend to be less experienced and mature than many of the staff whom they might be expected to evaluate. Granted that it is entirely possible for some older teachers to have "one year's experience twenty-five times," there is no known substitute for the mellowing and chastening learning experience of twenty-five years of cumulative interaction with boys and girls. It is questionable and even unfair to expect the beginning administrator to judge the work of teachers who have a wealth of experience and skill through long service.

Modern education calls for a profound understanding of children and the many elements which combine to determine their needs, their drives, and *their* values. Only as a person is permitted to work with and study children in the classroom does he begin to understand the nature of the individuality which suggests what experiences each might profit from. What may be classified as "good" in one set of circumstances may easily be deemed "bad" in a completely opposite set. He who judges the work of the teacher needs to be intimately acquainted with such varying circumstances, and equally ready to make his judgments relative to them, if he hopes to be fair and just. This appears to place an impossible burden on the individual who attempts to make arbitrary interpretations of the quality of teaching in a given classroom.

It is not uncommon for teachers who are visited by a supervisory official to exhibit an understandable uneasiness and fear

of the consequences of the visitation. The teacher often feels painfully aware of the importance of a good impression. Also, since the kind of impression he makes may be determined by his ability to guess what the supervisor wants, an undue effort to please the evaluator is more than likely to follow. It would be possible, but probably unnecessary, to catalogue all the influences which play upon the classroom teacher in the presence of one who is present to rate him: paralysis of natural talents through fear, frantic efforts to please with consequent danger of lost integrity, abject humility in the presence of authority, and so on. It is difficult to see how a true picture of the teacher's work can be obtained under such adverse circumstances.

The Need for Appraisal Remains. It might be concluded from the above that no judgments pertaining to the teacher's work can or should be made. Such a conclusion would be unfortunate and might lead to "educational anarchy," with each teacher carrying on a program which suited his own purposes, and expressing a quality of performance he is not motivated to improve because he lacks the stimulus of appraisal. Clearly, some type of appraisal is desirable to enhance the teacher's native abilities and to protect the children and the community from the incompetent.

A committee of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, N. E. A., has defined five conventional reasons for rating:

- (1) to determine salary advancement,
- (2) to change teacher status (i. e., for purposes of promotion, dismissal, or permanent appointment on tenure),
- (3) to improve instruction,
- (4) "for the record"; both to inform the superintendent and to protect the capable teacher by preserving a record of good service, and,
- (5) to maintain traditional personnel records.⁴

Granting that the conventional subjective *rating* may be

⁴ The Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, *Better Than Rating* (Washington, D. C., The Association, 1950), pp. 10-12.

attacked as indefensible, *evaluation* of the quality of teaching remains an imperative. Desirable goals must be established and progress toward them made. Children must be protected from the inept and the superannuated teacher. The qualities of good teachers must be further developed and put to good service. Programs of education must continually be analyzed in terms of community, national and international needs and kept in step with the changing tempo of the times. The best knowledge of educational psychology, sociology, anthropology, economics, history, and similar disciplines must be put to work so that every possible resource for the improvement of living is employed. Inevitably, in the process of reaching for these desirable ends teachers stand to profit from the encouragement and motivation generated by wholesome appraisal.

In order to avoid the undesirable consequences and patent inadequacies of the authoritarian-omniscient approach to the appraisal of teaching, it is necessary that creative thought be given to finding more promising techniques and procedures.

NEWER CONCEPTS OF EVALUATION

Since the early 1930's there has been a pronounced trend toward newer concepts of evaluation. Wrightstone, a widely recognized pioneer in the use of newer appraisal practices, noted that the trend stems ". . . from a newer philosophy of education and the development of newer techniques for assessing growth and development."⁵

Elements Influencing Modern Concepts of Evaluation. To be somewhat more specific, the evaluative process (which is interpreted in the succeeding pages of this chapter) owes much of its spirit and substance to at least four sources:

(1) *John Dewey and the philosophy of experimentalism.* For a period of almost fifty years, John Dewey developed and defined a radically new approach to the solution of the prob-

⁵ J. Wayne Wrightstone, "Trends in Evaluation," *Educational Leadership*, 8:91-95, November, 1950.

lems of life.⁶ His pattern or method of inquiry consisted of five basic steps: activity, problem, observation of data, formulation of hypothesis, and testing of hypothesis. In some ways, these steps resemble those in the evaluative process.⁷

(2) *The scientific movement and its method.* Since the birth of the scientific movement in the eighteenth century "Age of Enlightenment," scientists in all fields of endeavor have been attempting to refine and perfect a way-of-knowing which would assure mankind of a better world in which to live. The "method of intelligence" as described by Dewey is perhaps the best analysis of this surge for more and better knowledge. The highly desirable outcomes of this insistent search-and-discovery approach seemingly have become accepted as good by a large segment of the American people.

(3) *General semantics.* The break of modern-day scientists with the past is epitomized in the work of Alfred Korzybski⁸ in general semantics. For years scientists had been attempting to break the hold of the more stultifying elements of tradition on the mind of man. Physical and biological scientists had helped to effect this divorce through the work of Einstein and Darwin. It remained for Korzybski to make the break more final and complete in his formulation of a "non-Aristotelian" system of logic and theory of meaning. Out of it have come many leads for the development of the modern conception of evaluation.⁹

(4) *Child development research.* The rapidly expanding field of child development, to which reference was made in

⁶ Dewey's point of view is probably best portrayed in his *How We Think*, *op. cit.*; *Reconstruction in Philosophy* (Enlarged edition, Boston, The Beacon Press, 1948); and *Logic, The Theory of Inquiry* (New York, Henry Holt and Co., 1938).

⁷ For an excellent account of the influence of experimentalism on education, cf. John L. Childs, *Education and the Philosophy of Experimentalism* (New York, D. Appleton-Century Co., 1931).

⁸ Alfred Korzybski, *Science and Sanity* (Third edition, Lakeville, Conn., The International Non-Aristotelian Library Publishing Co., 1948).

⁹ For a more readable account of general semantics, cf. Wendell Johnson, *People in Quandaries* (New York, Harper and Brothers, 1946). He characterizes general semantics "... as a systematic attempt to formulate the general method of science in such a way that it might be applied not only in a few restricted areas of human experience, but generally in daily life." (p. 33.)

Chapter Three, has led to considerable revision of thinking concerning evaluation, particularly as it refers to the assessment of children's success in reaching certain arbitrarily established educational goals. As a result of this growing body of developmental data it is difficult to defend setting up goals to be achieved by children without due regard for their abilities, growth patterns, maturation levels, and growth sequences. The impact of this research has served to modify expectations and standards of achievement in many important ways.

What Evaluation Has Come to Mean. As a result of the creative thinking which has been invested in clarifying and improving the old approach to appraisal, various descriptive definitions have appeared. Together they serve to summarize newer concepts of the evaluation of teaching.

Smith and Tyler, as a result of their work on the evaluation staff of the Eight-Year Study, conclude that evaluation "... implies a process by which the values of an enterprise are ascertained."¹⁰

Alexander and Saylor note in their volume on *Secondary Education*:

The traditional evaluative activity . . . consists of pencil and paper tests. A more adequate concept of evaluation includes all the activities whereby an individual or group determines how well agreed-upon purposes have been achieved.¹¹

In somewhat the same vein Burr, Harding, and Jacobs define evaluation as "... the process of determining the extent to which values are achieved, purposes carried out, and goals reached . . ."¹²

Wrightstone points out that "... the emphasis in evaluation is upon broad personality changes and major objectives of an educational program."¹³

¹⁰ E. R. Smith and Ralph Tyler, *Appraising and Recording Student Progress* (New York, Harper and Brothers, 1942), p. 5.

¹¹ W. M. Alexander and J. Galen Saylor, *Secondary Education* (New York, Rinehart and Co., 1950), p. 442.

¹² James B. Burr, Lowry W. Harding, and Leland B. Jacobs, *Student Teaching in the Elementary School* (New York, Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1950), p. 183.

¹³ J. Wayne Wrightstone, "Evaluation," *Encyclopedia of Educational Research* (New York, The Macmillan Co., 1950), p. 403.

Perhaps the sampling of definitions quoted above are sufficient to emphasize the point that emerging conceptions of evaluation involve the notion that the process embraces a considerably wider area of concern than does mere measurement; that more than subject matter achievement of learners is included; and that the factor of applying *values* is inextricably bound up in the process. *Better Than Rating* summarizes these points in the following excerpts:

Evaluation . . . is concerned with the improvement of choices. It is not merely a judgment passed on what has already occurred with no reference to the future . . . evaluation looks to the past only for the help it may receive in bettering present and future planning.

Many educational writers stress the importance of recognizing evaluation as a continuous process, as an inseparable part of a program from the very beginning.¹⁴

In view of newer interpretations of appraisal it seems reasonable to conclude that the following comprehensive statement is consistent with the meaning of evaluation for creative educational leadership:

Evaluation is a process of determining socially desirable goals and outcomes for education. It is a continuous, comprehensive, and coöperative procedure involving children, the staff of the school, members of the community, and any others who are concerned with educational outcomes.

Evaluation attains significance in the degree to which success attends the study, interpretation, and guidance of desirable changes in human behavior. It involves leadership to the extent that the following activities need guidance and inspiration:

- (1) Isolation and study of the problems which impede or threaten the educational program,
- (2) Clarification of the values which bear on the problem,¹⁵
- (3) Development of criteria consistent with these values for the purpose of studying the problem,

¹⁴ The Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, *op. cit.*, p. 29.

¹⁵ Cf. Chapter Two, *supra*, for a discussion of the leader and his values.

- (4) Expression of the criteria in terms of the human behavior which is sought,
- (5) Establishment of situations in which behavior can be studied as the school seeks to modify it to conform to desired outcomes,
- (6) Employment of instruments to gather data which suggest the nature and direction of changes in behavior for which the school may be held accountable,¹⁶
- (7) Analysis of behavioral changes to ascertain whether or not they are consistent with the school's purposes, and,
- (8) Improvement in the work of the school by modifying or extending it as the processes of evaluation suggest.

From the inspectorial, directive, or "omniscient" approach, evaluation of teaching and learning has evolved toward a co-operative group endeavor through which all persons concerned plan and carry out activities aimed at improving children's experiences in school. Educational leadership, far from "losing face" in the transition, has gained greater respect and is challenged to reach new heights of creative intelligence in working with others. The leader is promoted from the role of herdsman, nudging a school full of sheep into line, to that of coördinator and guide of movements toward new frontiers of thought and endeavor.

CURRENT APPLICATIONS OF EVALUATION

Five Interrelated Interpretations of Evaluation. Even though agreement is developing concerning what evaluation means and how it is employed in the appraisal of teaching, current practices indicate that there are at least five differing, yet related, interpretations. When a person states that he is interested in "evaluating" the school program, he may mean any one of the following five procedures or processes:

- (1) Evaluation as the application of value to educational programs.

¹⁶ For example, tests, sociograms, anecdotal records, inventories of interest and personality, recordings, etc.

- (2) Evaluation as over-all program appraisal.
- (3) Evaluation as a means of gauging teacher competence.
- (4) Evaluation as measurement.
- (5) Evaluation as a means of studying and guiding children's behavior.¹⁷

While each of the five types will be discussed below, it is important to point out at this time that they overlap, and have the virtue of being able mutually to support one another. It should also be noted that values are an inextricable part of any evaluation program, but they tend to be abstract and subjective, leaving the evaluator with a feeling of indefiniteness unless they are intellectualized and expressed as criteria. Judgment of the program through the use of criteria, it must be mentioned, is valuable only to the extent that the criteria clarify, support, and strengthen the values accepted by the evaluators.

The fifth type of evaluation listed above is the most comprehensive concept. It has evolved from, and been supported by, the experiences gained in attempting the first four. As each of these has revealed its limitations, evaluators have continuously searched for better and more satisfying ways to assess progress. Led by such imaginative leaders as Wrightstone,¹⁸ Tyler,¹⁹ and Raths,²⁰ a broader, overarching concept of evaluative procedures has been developed which associates evaluation with the study of guidance of human behavior toward socially desirable goals which the staff's intellectualized values suggest the school should seek.

All of the types of evaluation to be discussed below have merit under certain circumstances. Educational leaders need to be aware of the strengths and weaknesses of each so that they

¹⁷ Harold G. Shane and E. T. McSwain, "Evaluation of the Educational Program," *Review of Educational Research*, 23:171-180, April, 1953.

¹⁸ J. Wayne Wrightstone, "Evaluation," *Encyclopedia of Educational Research* (Revised edition, New York, The Macmillan Co., 1950), pp. 403-406.

¹⁹ Ralph W. Tyler, "General Statement on Evaluation," *Journal of Educational Research*, 35:492-501, March, 1951.

²⁰ Louis E. Raths, "Toward Better Evaluations," *Educational Leadership*, 8:70-72, November, 1950.

may work effectively in the selection and wise use of the type that best fits the local situation.

EVALUATION AS A SOURCE OF GROUP DIRECTION

Applying Group Values to Problems. The least complex approach to evaluation is that of applying the present and emerging values of the teachers so as to gain a source of group direction in the solution of practical problems. It is least complex in the sense that it is used, either consciously or unconsciously, in nearly every decision a group of teachers makes. It is applicable in complex situations as well as simple ones. Perhaps an illustration on both the simple and complex levels will make the concept clearer.

Simple level of evaluation. A staff of teachers is faced with the problem of deciding what to do with children who arrive at school in the morning long before the 8:45 bell admits them to the classroom. Shall the children be required to remain outside in the play yard, allowed to stand in the outside corridors, or be permitted to enter the classrooms upon arrival, regardless of whether or not the teacher is present? Or, would it be better for teachers to plan to arrive at school at 8:15 in order to supervise these early birds? Other possible solutions may suggest themselves to the group. As the teachers consider the various alternatives they make choices in terms of their values. If they choose the values pertaining to concern for children, they will find their solution in one direction. If they are more influenced by the values which pertain to concern for themselves, they are likely to seek a different kind of solution. Once their values are clarified, the *direction* to be taken in seeking a solution is determined.

Complex level of evaluation. Every year teachers face the troublesome question of which children should be promoted and which retained. The decision is not easy to reach primarily because of the conflicts faced among competing and more or less equally compelling values. These values compete and con-

flict both within the value system of a single individual, and among the value systems of the various members of the group. Miss Smith, the third grade teacher, may feel that a particular child will profit from another year in her room, *from the academic standpoint*, and yet he may suffer *emotionally* from a devastating sense of failure. A conflict arises in the competition between academic values and human values. Miss Smith may be able successfully to clarify her values, but Miss Jones, the fourth grade teacher, may not arrive at the same order of values, thus creating a conflict in *value order* between the two teachers. The group solution in this case is to be found in agreement among the faculty as a whole as to the higher value which should determine general policy for the *particular child* in question.

There is no intention here to give the impression that the process of applying values is simple in the sense that it takes little time, or that solutions of apparently simple problems are easily reached. It is merely simple in the sense that the concept of using values as a means of giving direction to action is not difficult to understand. Employing the process of valuation makes subtle demands for keen human perception and sometimes is most perplexing.

As Schopenhauer noted in his essay *On Books and Reading*, "Intelligence is invisible to the man who has none." Values, like intelligence, have the unfortunate quality of being invisible to the man who fails to develop them. Values also have the habit of becoming deeply imbedded in the unconscious life of the individual, and are not always easily available for examination. Giving help in the process of drawing them to the surface so that teachers may become aware of their existence and modify them as intelligence suggests is one of the most challenging demands upon skillful leadership.

Steps in Applying Values to a Problem. For practical purposes, educational leaders need to recognize four steps which should be taken in the solution of problems:

(1) *Clarification of the problem through discussion.* Before solutions can be applied, it is necessary that all members of the

group understand what the problem is, and whether or not it actually constitutes a problem at all.

(2) *Examination of the educational values involved in the several tentative solutions which might be offered.* In the case of the children arriving at school too early, it is first necessary to discover what values motivate teachers who insist that children be kept outside until the first bell, and those which influence others to propose that teachers arrive in time to supervise them. Again, in the case of the question of promotion, the third grade teacher should be conscious of the fact that she is acting on the assumption that emotional security is more important than academic achievement.

(3) *Selection of the criteria which are used in deciding which of several policies or procedures are most suitable in serving the situation.* This is likely to stimulate over-all examination of major values, resulting in subsequent choices which will govern the disposition of each individual case. When the values concerned with serving boys and girls can be seen as paramount, the teachers are likely to decide that they must subordinate their personal convenience in the interests of child welfare.

(4) *Acceptance of the final group decision and execution of the policy.* This last step is particularly important. If the application of values to a problem or problems is to rise above the level of mere verbal exercise, action must ensue. If the process of valuation has been meaningful, the staff's acceptance and coöperation is almost certain to follow as decisions expressed as policies are put into operation.

EVALUATION AS A MEANS TO IMPROVE THE OVERALL EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM

Since the 1930's, when the Coöoperative Study of Secondary School Standards developed the Evaluative Criteria²¹ for use in the high school, a number of tools and procedures have been developed to assist school staffs to gauge the success with

²¹ Most recently re-issued in a 1950 edition.

which they are promoting teaching and learning. These fall into two broad categories: (1) devices for study of the school in its entirety, and (2) more specialized devices or techniques for use in such specialized areas as social studies or arithmetic.

Current Trends. The first group contains at least 50 instruments published by state departments of public instruction, as in New Jersey and Virginia.²² The Texas *Handbook for Self-Appraisal and Improvement of Elementary Schools*,²³ produced by Wilson and Otto, is particularly comprehensive. It contains criteria for judging the elementary program, score sheets, and a guide for appraisal of the campus, equipment, curriculum, and quality of school-home-community relationships. A project by the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools led to the publication of *Evaluating the Elementary School*, a guide which helps the local staff appraise the school's conceptions of education, functions, programs, resources, and planning.²⁴

It should be borne in mind that the major devices or instruments mentioned above stress self-evaluation, and the "action" or "functional" approach. This is the antithesis of the approach used in an earlier era in which judgments were made by an outside or "omniscient" authority.

Appraisal of work in special areas of the curriculum has often been done by individuals rather than organizations. For example, Wrightstone²⁵ and Grim²⁶ are among those who have

²² New Jersey Elementary Classroom Teachers and Elementary School Principals Association, *Self-Evaluation in the Elementary School* (Elementary School Bulletin No. 11, Trenton, New Jersey State Department of Education, 1946); Virginia State Department of Education, Division of Elementary Education, *The Characteristics of a Good Elementary School* (Richmond, The Department, 1949).

²³ Texas State Department of Education, Division of Elementary Education, *Handbook for Self-Appraisal and Improvement of Elementary Schools* (Revised edition, Austin, The Department, June, 1948).

²⁴ Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, Coöperative Study in Elementary Education, *Evaluating the Elementary School* (Atlanta, Georgia, The Association, 1951).

²⁵ J. Wayne Wrightstone, "Evaluation of the Social Studies in the Elementary School," *The Packet*, 7:3-12, Fall, 1952.

²⁶ Paul R. Grim, "A Technique for the Measurement of Attitudes in the Social Studies," *Educational Research Bulletin*, 15:95-104, April, 1936.

contributed to evaluation programs in the social studies. Olson,²⁷ Thompson,²⁸ and Davis²⁹ represent contributors in the language arts, and Spitzer³⁰ in the field of arithmetic.

It is apparent that leadership does not lack for either ideas or tools which may be used by a staff to help make intensive and extensive analyses of the educational program. Knowledge of these tools, and the ways in which they can help are a patent need of the creative leader in appraising teaching and learning.

The Role of Criteria. Criteria in terms of which educational practices and conditions may be appraised are almost without exception vital elements in the evaluative process. Indeed, in order to apply values to problems coherently they first must be expressed as criteria. Only in this form does the educator have a standard by means of which he subsequently may judge the worth of changes made in the school.

The values which are applied in order to gauge the efficacy of an educational program are made explicit in the criteria used. Unless this is true the values are likely to be obscured or even impossible to identify.

Leadership in evaluation should be directed toward assisting teachers to define their own goals, to create criteria by means of which progress toward these goals can be ascertained, and to devise instruments of their own which will help them to measure the extent to which they are achieving their objectives. Evolving sound criteria is an important creative act in appraisal processes. Evaluation is no more sound than the criteria it employs. The exact nature of criteria evolved for purposes of evaluation vary with each appraisal project because they are a reflection of the application of the value judgments of a *particular* group studying a *particular* problem or need.

²⁷ Helen F. Olson, "Evaluating Growth in Language Ability," *Journal of Educational Research*, 39:241-253, December, 1945.

²⁸ Wayne N. Thompson, "An Experimental Study of Accuracy of Speech Rating Techniques," *Speech Monographs*, 2:65-79, 1944.

²⁹ F. B. Davis, "What Do Reading Tests Really Measure?" *English Journal*, 33:180-187, April, 1944.

³⁰ H. F. Spitzer, "Procedures and Techniques for Evaluating the Outcomes of Instruction in Arithmetic," *Elementary School Journal*, 49:21-31, September, 1948.

Evaluating the Elementary School, a publication already cited, presents criteria which the research commission preparing it developed. Illustrative of criteria which fill many pages are 12 which were evolved for appraisal of the grounds surrounding the school plant.³¹ As set forth in this guide, desirable school grounds:

- (1) Provide at least five acres of space plus one acre for each 100 children
- (2) Are free from undue noise
- (3) Are free from disagreeable odors
- (4) Are safe and healthful
- (5) Are free from traffic hazards
- (6) Are well-drained and non-eroded
- (7) Include play areas for different age groups
- (8) Are convenient geographically to the greatest number of children to be served
- (9) Include garden plots
- (10) Include some hard surfaced play areas
- (11) Are attractively landscaped
- (12) Are kept clean and attractive.

At some stage in appraisal of the overall educational program, values must emerge, be analyzed, and be stated in some form analogous to the criteria above. It should be obvious that appraisal cannot well proceed if such an organization of values is lacking.

GAUGING TEACHER COMPETENCE

Of all the evaluation problems and procedures, the one that seems most frequently and persistently to plague administrators is that of judging the competence of the individual teacher. That judgments of the quality of service of teachers is an

³¹ Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, Coöperative Study in Elementary Education, *op. cit.*, pp. 203-205. Criteria pertaining to the school grounds were deliberately chosen as illustrations because of their simplicity, brevity, and tendency to be free of sharply divided educational opinion. Criteria for a "good" instructional program obviously would be more complex and more controversial.

inescapable responsibility there is no doubt. The question is not, "Shall teachers be evaluated?" but, "*How* shall the evaluations be made?"

The Teacher Rating Dilemma. Reference was made earlier in the chapter to the impediments to and fallacies in evaluation of the individual teacher by a presumably "omniscient" and "superior" school official. Educators who have had extensive experience in working with teachers are very much aware of the subtle and unwholesome influences which can affect the teacher's actions when in the presence of such a person. Staff members who know that they are being rated will consciously or unconsciously subordinate their own best judgment to their best *guess* as to what will "please the boss." Worse than this, however, is the lack of consistency between this attitude and the coöperative group leadership approach which creatively-minded administrators frequently attempt to develop. It is a travesty on intellectual honesty to insist, on the one hand, that the leader is anxious to have teachers coöperate in the formulation of group policies, and, on the other, to make arbitrary, subjective judgments of their work. The former implies respect for the individual and his ability, the latter is redolent of distrust. Intelligent teachers can hardly be expected to assume responsibility in coöperative program improvement when the realities of a situation indicate that their competence must be rated on the basis of formal, fragmentary administrative opinion.

If the rating scale approach to gauging teacher merit is lacking in soundness, what are more promising procedures? Barr's³² summary of investigations in this field offers little specific help as to methods that are "better than rating." Many individuals have bent their efforts toward the solution of this problem and have come up with inconclusive or equivocal conclusions.

The great difficulty in the problem is heightened by McCall's attempt to find an objective and definitive basis for merit rating

³² A. S. Barr, "The Measurement and Prediction of Teaching Efficiency: A Summary of Investigations," *Journal of Experimental Education*, 16:203-283, June, 1948.

of teachers.³³ In a state-wide study, he attempted to find factors in teachers which would correlate with the amount of progress children made under their direction. His conclusion is revealing:

All things considered, *this research failed to find any system of measuring teacher merit which the writer is willing to recommend be adopted as a basis for paying the salaries of all teachers. This study did establish that the existing system is of little value if salaries should be paid on merit, and the system of merit rating by official superiors which the State was considering for adoption is of no value.*³⁴

McCall's study attempted to find relationships between pupil progress and such factors as amount of training, amount of experience, rating of principals, rating by peers, and the teacher's rating of himself. Even such factors as age, salary, sex, marital status, and race were investigated. In every case, Dr. McCall found the correlations so low as to be statistically insignificant.

These findings document the existence of a particularly sharp-horned dilemma. Many educators readily agree to the importance of identifying both good and poor teachers and to the importance of recognizing merit in matters relating to promotions and even to salary increases. They also admit the necessity of protecting children from the incompetent. Yet, no one to date has come forward with a completely feasible plan which will avoid the serious limitations in personal judgments as exercised by administrators.

Appraisal Practices Superior to Rating. One of the more hopeful proposals has been made by Koopman.³⁵ He suggested that the merit of the teacher be determined by a board composed of both his peers and of administrative personnel, selected co-operatively by the teacher and the administrator. Decisions concerning what constitutes merit, according to Koopman, would

³³ William A. McCall, *Measurement of Teacher Merit* (Raleigh, N. C., State Department of Public Instruction, 1952).

³⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 37. (Italics in the original.)

³⁵ Robert Koopman, "Merit Plan," *Michigan Educational Journal*, 25:165-166, October, 1947.

be determined by the reviewing board. The main difficulties in this plan appear to lie in the fact that a number of boards would be needed, that it would be awkward to handle in districts with either high turn-over or large staffs, and that the administrative and clerical burden would be heavy.

Shane³⁶ made a study of 35 educationally recognized suburban school systems, which he reported in 1952, and found that formal rating procedures had been dropped as unprofitable or unworkable in a number of districts. From 70 responses (which implied that more than one type of appraisal was used in most districts) it could be inferred that seven types of evaluation were current.

As summarized in Figure 6, (1) rating scales or check lists,

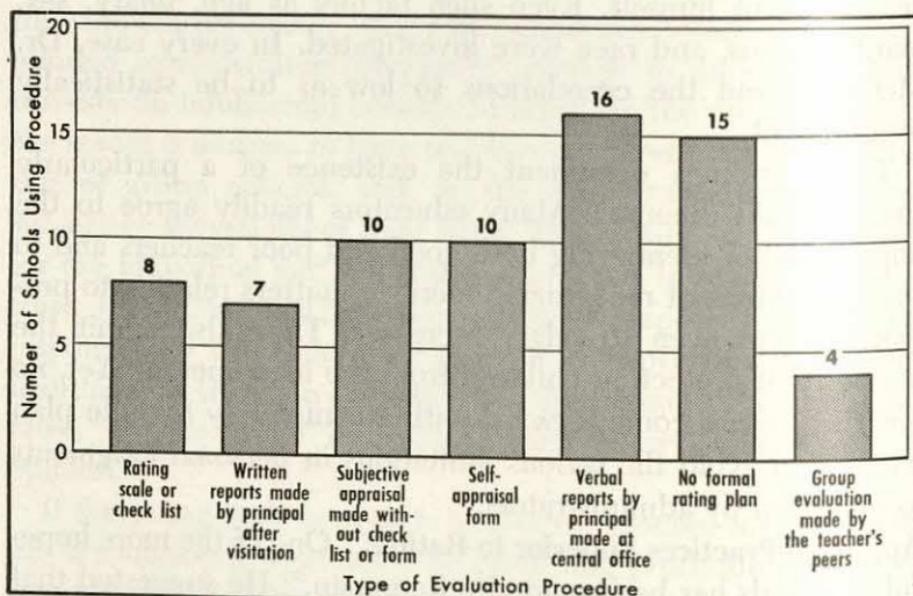


FIG. 6. Evaluation procedures used in 35 elementary districts in 1952.

(2) written reports, and (3) subjective administrative appraisals (which did not involve check lists) were used by only one-third of the schools surveyed. (4) Self-appraisal, (5) informal verbal appraisal, or (6) no formal plan whatsoever were

³⁶ Harold G. Shane, "Seven Types of Teacher Appraisal," *The Nation's Schools*, 50:58-59, July, 1952.

somewhat more prevalent and (7) a few schools (4 out of 35) were trying group evaluations made by the teacher's peers. One district used the "Koopman Plan" of an administrative-staff panel mentioned above. The variety and distribution of types of procedures for gauging competence probably support the view that educational leadership in outstanding schools is seeking procedures which are superior to rating scales and forms. The study itself, however, was not constructed so as to reveal trends as such.

Turning directly to the question of what appraisal procedures are superior to subjective rating, it seems quite safe to generalize that the several flexible procedures are more promising than *formal* attempts to *measure* teaching ability. Among the means which promise to be superior to merit rating in increasing the competence of the school staff are the following:

(1) The development of a careful and well-planned *selection* program for new teachers. If adequate care is exercised in selecting new teachers, there will be considerably less need for a "rating" system. The assumption on which leadership will proceed is that all teachers who pass beyond a probationary period are entitled to continued promotion and salary increases. While this assumption would not necessarily apply to all teachers already in service, it could increasingly become a basis on which to operate.³⁷ Selection, by the way, should not be considered solely the responsibility of the colleges, but a duty to be shared with the public schools.

(2) The provision of adequate help for individual teachers from the administration, consultants, and other teachers so that each may have available a variety of stimulating professional ideas, plus consistent encouragement to grow in service. If emphasis is placed on providing such assistance during the early years of teaching, proper orientation and induction should serve to assure continued success.

(3) Recognition for the teacher in the form of salary differentials for those who display initiative in improving them-

³⁷ Details of the selection process are discussed in Chapter Fourteen.

selves with respect to concrete activities which are likely to promote personal-professional growth. Advanced study and travel are examples of such activities. The salary schedule need not be built on the assumption that someone will need to *rate* teachers in order for them to receive their increments.³⁸

(4) The use of rich resources of information, research, study, and investigation in the realm of incentives which spur teachers to greater growth and enthusiasm for the job. Some of these incentives can be discovered in the field of the social studies, already alluded to in Chapter Three, some in the new field of group dynamics.³⁹

Cory⁴⁰ has recently concluded a study of the incentives which motivate teachers in which he has listed over 250 specific factors. While space limitations preclude the possibility of listing all, excerpts from his summary are worthy of study by leadership in education:

The key to a successful program of in-service training is participation by the school staff. Participation motivates teachers to grow. Teachers appreciate the opportunity to share in the determination and execution of their own program.

The orientation of new teachers in the system is of major significance. New teachers need to feel that they are an integral and accepted part of the staff. They need also to understand the philosophy of the school and, above all, they need constructive help in the solution of their individual problems.

. . . The indications are that the essential characteristics of a good in-service program are the same in both large and small schools, and that the program can operate successfully in both situations.

³⁸ Salary schedules not depending upon merit ratings are discussed in Chapter Fifteen.

³⁹ Cf. Dorwin Cartwright and Alvin Zander, *Group Dynamics: Research and Theory* (Evanston, Illinois, Row, Peterson and Co., 1953).

⁴⁰ N. Durward Cory, "Incentives Used in Motivating Professional Growth of Teachers," Committee on In-service Education of Teachers, *North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools* (undated). Copies of the reprint available at the office of the secretary, Charles W. Boardman, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis.

Democratic participation of the staff in solving the problems of the school is the most modern approach to successful school administration. The wider the participation, the more successful is the school. This calls for careful handling on the part of the principal, but will result eventually in better coöperation, greater understanding, and *more growth on the part of the teachers.*⁴¹

(5) Greater stress on the importance of self-evaluation so that the individual teacher needs to depend less and less on outside aid for determining the quality of his work. If superintendents, principals, and consultants could conceive of their responsibility as that of making teachers self-sufficient, teachers would be *strengthened rather than weakened* by the evaluation program. An extra benefit often would be that of self-motivation.

The problem of "to rate or not to rate" is not likely to arise if creative leaders can be free of routine chores so that they may devote sufficient time to work with individual teachers in an atmosphere of mutual trust and good will, common purpose in serving children, and coöoperative participation in planning policies. In fine, good leadership which frees teachers to work creatively *should in itself end the rating dilemma* by eliminating the *need* to use rating devices as clubs or goads.

JUDGING PUPIL GROWTH THROUGH EVALUATION

In a great many school systems the term "evaluation" is used as a euphemistic synonym for a testing program, especially the measurement of intelligence and achievement. This is a narrow and restrictive interpretation of evaluation, generally revealing the confusion in the minds of its users between traditional conceptions of measurement in the school and attempts to use a modern vocabulary. While it is not important to place too much emphasis upon the terms used to describe practice, it is im-

⁴¹ *Ibid.*, pp. 408-409. (Italics not in the original.)

portant to make a clear distinction between *measurement* and *evaluation*.

Achievement, intelligence, aptitude, and vocational guidance tests are merely *tools* which one uses in the evaluation process. It is desirable that an evaluator collect evidence of a specific nature, and as objectively as possible, but after the data have been amassed it is still necessary to make *interpretations* of them. Evaluation is seen as a more comprehensive process than measurement.

Even within the measurement program itself, it is essential that evidence be collected on as broad a basis as possible. There is a great deal more that must be known about children than their intelligence level and achievement scores. In addition to these facts the following are important sources of information:

- (1) Health records, particularly the placement and progress of each child on the Wetzel growth grid.
- (2) Anecdotal records, objective reports of what children say and do in operational situations.
- (3) Activity records of children's participation in out-of-classroom programs.
- (4) Evidences of social acceptance and distance.⁴²
- (5) Reports of personal interviews.
- (6) Tape recordings of classroom discussions.
- (7) Children's diaries.
- (8) Children's creative writing.
- (9) Parent conferences—parents' revelations of home backgrounds of children.
- (10) Psychodrama and sociodrama. Role playing devices which reveal many hidden problems of children and also suggest creative solutions and procedures.
- (11) Interest inventories.
- (12) Children's letters.
- (13) Films and recordings of children's activities.

It has been stressed repeatedly that able leaders help teachers to gain the widest and deepest understanding and knowledge

⁴² Cf. *The Ohio Guidance Tests for Elementary Grades*, Ohio State Department of Education, Division of Elementary Supervision (Columbus, Ohio, 1946).

of individual children that it is possible to obtain. Measurement as a subordinate phase of the total program will be infinitely more helpful and informative if a broad base is used for the collection of evidence.⁴³

Strengths and Limitations of a Testing Program. A strong program for testing or gauging growth will provide data to supplement the teacher's judgment and help him both to understand and to guide the individual child in his mental, physical, emotional, and social growth. Its main purpose is to provide *clues* as to ways behavior can better be channelled into productive directions. In no way are the devices of measurement capable, in or of themselves, of yielding evaluative judgments. Actually, instruments should be used *only as part of a total program of studying children* in which a staff engages. Using instruments out of a context of child study can be misleading and even may result in harmful, erroneous conclusions.

For example, let us assume that Jim has an achievement test profile of 3.9 at the end of the *fourth* grade. This merely indicates that Jim appears to be a full year below the norm attained by masses of fourth graders in the country as a whole. It does *not*, for instance, state factually or imply suggestively, that *Jim is a poor reader*. The latter is an evaluation, or a judgment made on the basis of the data at hand. To confuse the issue further, there is no assurance that the score Jim attained is a "true" score. Perhaps he is able to read much better than the test reveals. Jim may have done poorly for a great variety of reasons other than lack of ability.

Testing and measurement programs reveal another glaring weakness not always uniformly recognized by teachers and administrators. The inner workings of the child are infinitely complex and incapable of being completely revealed, either

⁴³ For an account of instruments for studying children's behavior, cf. Commission on Teacher Education, *Helping Teachers Understand Children* (Washington, D. C., American Council on Education, 1945). Also, a comprehensive treatment of measurement instruments will be found in Harry A. Greene, Albert N. Jorgensen, and J. Raymond Gerberich, *Measurement and Evaluation in the Elementary School* (Second edition, New York, Longmans, Green and Co., 1953).

by a single device or a combination of devices. Human behavior is exceedingly involved with individual growth patterns and sequences in which many factors are inextricably interrelated. Human personality is a totality, capable of being understood—even imperfectly—only as a complete unified person, with all his drives, aspirations, interests, and cultural influences, is studied.

Snygg and Combs⁴⁴ have pointedly documented this problem in their chapter on "Diagnosis and Research in a Phenomenological System," in which they describe the great variety of instruments needed in understanding behavior:

Since it [behavior] is a complex and unique organization we wish to explore, one of the problems with which we shall be faced at the outset is how to explore this organization without destroying it in the process. An organization, after all, is a whole. When its parts are abstracted there is grave danger that wholeness may be destroyed in the process.⁴⁵

Testing and research into children's school behavior are limited by the skill of the teacher in selecting, interpreting, and wisely using the appropriate instruments. The instruments themselves are neutral, inert appliances until brought to life through the skill and insight of the user. Data revealed by the instruments must be used to *supplement* rather than *supersede* insightful human judgment.

An Adequate Testing Program. If a testing program is to bolster a teacher's evaluative judgments, it must provide all of the necessary data on which judgments will be made. The program should provide at least the following:

(1) *Evidence of a given child's native endowment and academic level of achievement.* These two factors are necessarily related, and the evidence should be treated together. The level of achievement is related to the ability to achieve. The evidence of one child, with an I. Q. of 100 and a reading level that is normal for his grade, should be interpreted quite differently

⁴⁴ Donald Snygg and Arthur W. Combs, *Individual Behavior* (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1949), Chapter Twelve.

⁴⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 247.

from that of another child with an I. Q. of 150 and a reading level normal for his grade.

(2) *Evidence of the degree to which children are ready to learn.* This implies a knowledge of maturation levels and an ability to obtain evidence of the child's maturational patterns. Readiness tests, particularly in reading, only partly reveal this information. The rest must come from such data as are obtained from the teacher's knowledge of the child as a whole.

(3) *Evidence of the degree to which the child is succeeding in his social relationships.* If psychologists of established reputation are to be believed, the role a child adopts and feels it important to play in the group has a direct and vital influence on his learning and development. While sociometry potentially has provided teachers with a limited means for gaining knowledge in this area, it is often necessary to go beyond the professional capacities of most teachers and seek information from specialists, such as psychiatrists, psychiatric social workers, school psychologists and pediatricians.⁴⁶

(4) *Evidence of the degree to which the child is developing normally in his physical growth, and the extent to which "mis-adventures" in health have interfered with it.* Health records and Wetzel grids will be of great assistance, but occasionally it may be necessary to have recourse to the services of pediatricians and other medical specialists.

(5) *Longitudinal studies of the changes which are occurring in the individual, physically, mentally, emotionally, and socially.* "Spot checks" of development are useless unless they provide a continuous picture of the individual as he grows and develops. Teachers need to supplement the frequently inadequate and restricted collection of evidence by building up cumulative records which extend over the entire time the child is in school. Parts of a total picture do not begin to take on their full meaning until seen in the perspective of his growth continuum.

⁴⁶ A useful handbook which discusses and analyzes tests and testing is: Frank S. Freeman, *Theory and Practice of Psychological Testing* (New York, Henry Holt and Co., 1950).

Creative administrators frequently will find that one or more of the five components of a good testing program, as listed above, need to be added to the body of evidence available to teachers in their school districts. Even when all five elements are present there is the need to ascertain whether or not the data they provide are being used fully and intelligently.

EVALUATING SOCIALLY DESIRABLE CHANGES IN HUMAN BEHAVIOR

"The Proof of the Pudding . . ." An old saying has it that "the proof of the pudding is in the eating."⁴⁷ In evaluation, the ultimate proof of the effectiveness of appraisal resides in the extent to which it helps the school staff to improve educational opportunities and experiences for children and youth.

Leadership in evaluation involves the creative synthesis of the comprehensive processes which have been developed during the last several decades. No one of the five interpretations and uses of evaluation, described above, is entirely adequate, *per se*. It is through the selection of the precisely appropriate device or devices to serve a recognized need that the best conception of evaluation is achieved. Needs must first be identified and established before the techniques can be chosen. In most cases, the evaluation program will involve:

(1) Procedures for developing and applying sound values to educational problems and policy decisions. These will be chosen best by the entire staff of teachers who are engaged in the education of the children. Group discussion and consensus appear to be the most effective way in which this may be done.

(2) Skill in the selection and continuing use of sound criteria and instruments which give evidence of the extent to which the school is achieving its purposes. Many tests, devices,

⁴⁷ Less familiar than the quotation is its source: Miguel de Cervantes' classic, *Don Quixote*. (Cf. p. 322 in the Modern Library Giant Edition of the Motteux translation.)

instruments, and techniques will be employed, rather than placing dependence upon one or few.

(3) Development of the ability of teachers to make meaningful interpretations of the evidence collected.

(4) Creative guidance of teachers as they attempt to put to use developing insights of what constitutes a total evaluation program.

These four are the components of the evaluation of socially desirable changes in human behavior with which the schools are concerned as they seek ". . . the civilization of abundance, democratic behavior, and integrity of expression and beauty which is now potentially available."⁴⁸

Good People Make Good Schools. The conclusion is inescapable: the quality of the school, and of its evaluation program, can be no better than the people who are responsible for its improvement. Evaluation programs which seek to make judgments about the success of the school, but leave those who are responsible for it untouched, are likely to be fruitless efforts ending in mechanical appraisals which miss the heart of the matter.

Modern conceptions of evaluation realize the primary importance of directly involving the values, insights, and judgments of those who are engaged in the process. One of the major outcomes of good evaluation is the improvement discerned in the evaluator. If people do not improve in the process of making appraisals, evaluation has failed of its best promise.

Good evaluation is self-reflexive⁴⁹ and circular. There are three factors in the evaluative process which are continually affecting one another—(1) evaluators, (2) the evaluation, and (3) the goals of evaluation (improved learning opportunities

⁴⁸ *Democracy and the Curriculum*, Third Yearbook, The John Dewey Society (New York, D. Appleton-Century Co., 1939), p. 27.

⁴⁹ For an explanation of "self-reflexive" cf. Wendell Johnson, *op. cit.*, pp. 151-155. In brief, the best illustration is the character of an "ideal" map. If you are making a map of a territory that is to cover everything, it must include you making the map, since you are in the territory the map is trying to cover, etc. This implies that the administration engaged in the processes of evaluation is continually influenced and re-influenced by the fact of his participation.

for children). Wherever one starts to analyze this trio the interrelationships are apparent. *Teachers* make appraisals, which affect both themselves and the children. *Evaluations*, in turn, affect teachers and children. The *children* themselves, and *their* goals, affect evaluations and teachers. Perhaps this self-reflexiveness may best be illustrated by this statement: good teachers make good evaluations in terms of good goals, which create the conditions for making better teachers make better evaluations in terms of better goals. Since all of these factors are related "self-reflexively" to one another, the conception of "best" is relative.

Creative educational leadership exercises one of its most potent functions in encouraging, promoting, and guiding teachers in their role as both determiners of value goals, and the processes by which these are measured. The test is whether *teachers and children* improve through the former's attempts to plan the educational program for the latter. The continuous improvement of a program is significant to the degree that important, wholesome changes take place in all parties concerned.

SUMMARY

In an earlier day (and at a time when the dynamics of change were less powerful than in the twentieth century) the belief was widely held that the educational leader was one who could authoritatively appraise and direct *his* school program toward *his* goals. It was assumed that, in the course of his experience, he had developed a judgment superior to that of the teachers' and should therefore tell them what to do, how to do it, and how well they were succeeding.

The appraisal and direction of the school's program by an omniscient leader has been replaced by newer concepts of evaluation in which administrator, staff, children, and community work together in creating and moving toward goals they commonly accept and understand.

Several decades ago pupil progress was identified with a

narrow concept of academic standing, and the instructional program was judged primarily by the level of achievement and orderliness of pupils and classrooms. Of recent years educational appraisal has been conceived as a comprehensive process. The task of the school still is the guidance of children in the development of basic skills as in former years. However, at least equal importance is assigned to the recognition of the need to ascertain that children's individual purposes are met, that wholesome attitudes and values are re-created, preserved, and strengthened in each rising generation.

Teachers, sharing in the high purposes of creating environments which enhance democratic citizenship, no longer patiently endure a type of leadership which overwhelms them with threats of poor ratings if they fail to conform to an administrator's subjective standards. Rather, each individual teacher requires a leadership which strives with him for on-the-job improvement.

Last of all, it should be borne in mind that good evaluation, like good leadership, is concerned with creative, constructive change as an inherent factor in valuing.

"Let us, while waiting for new monuments, preserve the ancient monuments," wrote Victor Hugo in 1832. The leader in evaluation deliberately searches for new educational designs, but respects the "old monuments" of his profession to the degree that they provide structural strength of building materials for program and teacher improvement.

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CHAPTER SIX

LEADERSHIP IN PARENT AND COMMUNITY RELATIONS



DURING the early years of public education in America, schools for children and early adolescents tended to be grim and unpleasant places. Before the advent of compulsory school attendance laws children, in many instances, attended only under vigorous protest (if they attended at all). On the whole, parents and other citizens left the schools to their own devices, and asked only that they be periodically assured by the town selectmen that moral and academic standards were sufficiently stringent and orthodox. The concept of "mental discipline," which assumed that, to be effective, mental training must be a hard and unpleasant task to which children must be driven, contributed to the unwholesome atmosphere. The general condition of schools was not improved by the poor and inadequate teaching materials, by teachers who were woefully lacking in the refined skills of working sensitively with children, or by administrators who were few in number, limited in preparation, and inadequate in operation.

Since many early American schools were largely deliberate copies of their British counterparts, a description of conditions given in *David Copperfield* is probably not greatly overdrawn. The school was:

. . . the most forlorn and desolate place I had ever seen. I see it now. A long room, with three rows of desks . . . bristling all around with pegs for hats and slates. Scraps of old copybooks and exercises litter the dirty floor . . . There is a strange unwholesome smell upon the room, like mildewed corduroys, sweet apples wanting air, and rotten books. There could not well be more ink splashed about it, if it had been roofless from its first construction, and the skies had rained, snowed, hailed, and blown ink through the varying seasons of the year.¹

Little wonder that parents were inclined to leave such an environment to itself. Their own personal misadventures and emotional warping under the tutelage of such unsympathetic taskmasters as Irving's Ichabod Crane served to discourage them from spending any further time at a school where a passerby could hear:

. . . the appalling sound of the birch as Ichabod urged some loiterer along the flowery path of knowledge. Truth to say, he was a conscientious man and ever bore in mind the golden maxim, "spare the rod, and spoil the child." Ichabod Crane's scholars certainly were not spoiled.²

Such descriptions of early schools have been preserved in literature and handed down from generation to generation as the stereotype of all schools. It is part and parcel of the tradition of "hard learning" to assume that schools, in order to be good, must be places of mental torment, demanding tasks, barren (hence undistracting) classrooms, and uncompromising taskmasters. It was more or less taken for granted, at least through the nineteenth century, that "real learning" is, like sulphur and molasses, to be forced down young throats because it is good for them.

Looking back over this period one finds that a persistent and continuous revolution has taken place. Without too much organized public action or opposition, changes have been inaugurated in school practices which have altered fundamentally

¹ Charles Dickens, *David Copperfield* (New York, Dodd, Mead and Co., 1924), p. 75.

² Washington Irving, *The Sketch Book* (Boston, Ginn and Co., 1901), p. 401.

the concept of the good school. Motivated by a new philosophy, aided by insights into the learning process, and supported by knowledge gained through the study of children, the teaching profession has demolished the forbidding façade and gloomy interior of the school where children were driven to their work. Warmth, friendliness, and an awareness of common purposes increasingly mark parental visits to the school. A fresh, vital spirit of contribution to community living has been conceived and initiated by professional leadership. And best of all, the young go willingly to school. Vanished are the school atmospheres in which children and youth, in Copperfield's words, sat "drooped over their books and trembling," while witnessing cruel punishment which made them feel like ". . . miserable little dogs . . . with visages white as ashes, and [with] hearts sinking into [their] boots."³

The pronounced changes in educational practices, which include a fresh concept of the vital role of the school in community living, has proceeded for the most part without complete understanding or awareness on the part of the general public. If these desirable changes are to be retained and improved, creative leadership must assume a more active responsibility for interpreting the work of the schools and for building effective public relations on a foundation not merely of community understanding but of participation as well.

SOME GOALS FOR EFFECTIVE LEADERSHIP IN THE COMMUNITY

The history of education in America reflects growing interest and support for public schools. With the exception of the Great Depression of 1931-1941, citizens have willingly and unhesitatingly voted steadily increasing sums of tax money for the operation of schools. As enrollments have expanded,⁴ parents, and seemingly all citizens, have shown an increased interest in

³ Dickens, *op. cit.*, p. 87.

⁴ There are now as many *teachers* of grades 7-12 as there were *children* in these grades at the turn of the century!

the educational program. From current public attitudes it may be inferred that the American people want and expect not only good but increasingly better schools.

Greater interest has led to more concern about what is happening within the elementary and junior high schools, with which this book is concerned. Knowledge of the changing programs has gradually seeped into the consciousness of many parents, leading to questions as to the adequacy of these programs. Perhaps a large segment of educational leadership has assumed that the willingness of the people to underwrite public education is a permanent characteristic. Sufficient evidence has accumulated in the past few years, however, to demand the mature reflection of all school workers on the necessity for planning with care ways of bringing the school and its supporters closer together.

What Does the Community Have a Right to Expect from Leadership? In addition to the competencies which a leader needs to have in order to provide the school program with insightful direction,⁵ it is vitally necessary that he possess certain understandings and abilities which will more fully guarantee that the school will find acceptance and continue to fill a proper place in the community. The following constitute a minimum list of qualities in educational leaders which the public has a right to expect:

Understanding of the nature and importance of good parent and community relations. This understanding probably requires some grounding in the history of education, particularly as it relates to the past fifty years—a period of time in which major and even revolutionary changes have occurred in school practices.

It is particularly necessary for leaders to understand the source and development of the basic values by which laymen tend to judge the worth of the school program. Historically, the public has become accustomed to expect the schools to teach children to be literate and moral. While additions have been made in activities and content, such as the social studies,

⁵ Cf. Chapter Four, p. 113ff.

science, art, and music, the "good" program still, in the minds of many citizens, is dedicated to the pursuit of formal knowledge and skills associated with the three R's.

It is only to be expected that, in the relatively uncomplicated world of the past century, the public were satisfied with simple, basic educational experiences for children. Aside from formal book learning, the nineteenth-century child needed little from the school. Vocational and social education were much more nearly satisfied through the home, community, and religious life of that era than at present.⁶ An increasingly complex world in which children must be prepared to live has motivated the schools to assume responsibilities for the guidance and growth of children to an extent undreamed of in any other period of American history.

Since the program with which parents are familiar is the only one *they* experienced, it is understandable that some welcome the idea of "getting back to the fundamentals," and show unwillingness to accept new theories and practices, sight unseen. An excellent illustration of this point appeared in a widely read news magazine:

In any other U. S. community, Tannenbaum's *Handwriting of the Renaissance* would hardly be popular reading. But in suburban Brookline, Mass. (pop. 57,589), a good number of parents are thumbing it through—and all are doing so with a purpose. Last week they were collecting ammunition for the hottest school battle of the year. Their target: the exclusive teaching of manuscript printing in Brookline's public grade schools.

The battle began when a series of incidents made parents realize that something was radically wrong. One little boy confessed that he could not read the postcards his mother had sent him from Honolulu. A teen-age grocery clerk had to admit that he could not read handwritten orders. Another boy told his mother that he could not decipher his pen pal's letters. A little girl said she could not sign her name "because I can't do capitals." Last May six mothers and fathers finally formed a Parent's Research Committee to look into the matter further.

⁶ Cf. William H. Kilpatrick, *Education for a Changing Civilization* (New York, The Macmillan Co., 1929).

Was there any valid reason, they wanted to know, why Brookline's schools should teach printing only?⁷

Leaders must not lose sight of the tremendously important part public values have in determining the role and program of the school. Whether or not any proposal should be put into operation, however good it may be, is dependent upon public understanding and some acceptance before it can hope to succeed. In a practical sense, the "goodness" of the educational program is determined by what the consuming public *calls* "good." The first requisite to successful leadership is an understanding of this basic principle. But, "understanding" is not meant to imply subordination of professional judgment to tradition! The educational leader has the responsibility for building community readiness for change through the process of planning a program based upon educational ideas of sufficient merit, *sufficiently interpreted*, to create public acceptance.

Skill in the process of initiating and guiding lay participation in the development of school policies. This point is a natural concomitant of the one immediately above. The public has a tremendous investment in the public schools, both financially and in the future of their children. Sole reliance on the representational function of boards of education in some school districts is in danger of breakdown because of dynamic changes in the complexity and size of many communities. Leadership needs to exert initiative in providing parents and interested community members with opportunities to have a more direct influence on the controlling policies of the school. (This point will be amplified later in the chapter.)

Participation of the leader in community affairs. Like other first-class citizens, the leader is obliged to invest a portion of his time in the betterment of community life through his active participation. Not only need he engage actively in the obligations of voting, attendance at certain civic meetings, and carrying his fair share of the tax burden, but he should share to a degree commensurate with his abilities as a professional person in activities leading to community improvement. To

⁷ Time magazine, 62:89, October 12, 1953.

what better source may a community look for professional counsel? If educators do not possess insights and abilities to help a community to improve, they have failed in one of their most important responsibilities and opportunities. The leadership function of administrators in working with the community for its own socio-cultural improvement is one of the most potent of activities in the promotion of better relationships between the school and its patrons.

A broad concept of the role of the school in the improvement of the community. Again, the point follows the one above. In times past, the typical concept of the role of education was confined to that of service to *children and youth, per se*. Now a broadening sense of contribution suggests that not only should the school serve children, but the *community as a whole*. As the school accepts and acts on this wider proposition the community presumably can hope to improve its way of living. Bode has summarized this point as follows:

The school is . . . the institution to which a democratic society is entitled to look for clarification of the meaning of democracy.

In other words, the school is peculiarly the institution in which democracy becomes conscious of itself.⁸

Leaders will play a vital role in this worthy cause as they are able simultaneously to create in the school itself an organic laboratory for democratic learning, and opportunities for the people in the community to develop similar experiences in their areas of activity. At the same time, educational leadership can make itself absurd by developing a "Jehovah complex" and attempting uncompromisingly to foist upon or dictate to the community a particular brand of educational or social thinking. The community has a right to resent any educator's single-handed attempts to usurp the function of controlling progress. At best he may be a Cassandra. And he will probably be looking for another job—by request!

Goals for Effective Leadership. Effective leadership in school-community relations is concerned, currently at least, with two

⁸ Boyd H. Bode, *Democracy as a Way of Life* (New York, The Macmillan Co., 1939), p. 95.

goals, both of which must be recognized if the leader is to serve effectively in improving community relations:

(1) The maintenance of public support for good education in an era when there are sharp differences of opinion as to what constitutes effective teaching methods and sound educational purposes.

(2) The contribution of the school program to the material improvement of community living.

In the sections which follow an attempt will be made to identify the problems involved in attaining these two goals, and to suggest programs which promise some measure of success in achieving them.

BUILDING GOOD PARENT-COMMUNITY RELATIONS IN AN ERA OF CRITICISM

Criticism of education is almost as old as the schools themselves. It is natural that an interest as close to the public's heart as its children's welfare should occasion some probing and sharp criticism. Actually, the absence of criticism would be a much more alarming situation, if it could be attributed either to indifference or complete resignation to the pedagogic *status quo*. The well-being of any public institution is measured in part by the extent to which the population takes an interest in its work and registers complaints, objections, acclaim, and curiosity. Thus institutions remain of maximum service through the stimuli of continuing re-examination.

The teaching profession should look upon the current public clamor over the nature and quality of education with a great deal more satisfaction than the circumstances seem superficially to justify. It is generally accepted among educators (who are themselves addicted to self-criticism) that many educational practices are in need of improvement and change. The widespread willingness of sections of public opinion to make known its ideas concerning the nature and direction of these changes is an important factor to be considered in reconstructing educational programs. The larger portion of

those who readily, and sometimes fluently, speak their minds may be identified as individuals who have the best interests of the schools at heart, and are honestly concerned with being helpful. They constitute that large group of parents eager to insure better learning opportunities for their children. Although it cannot be averred that they are always right in what they conceive as "better," it is essential that educators listen respectfully to their ideas and be guided by them. Often good ideas can be obtained and weaknesses corrected.

The cause for alarm over criticisms of the schools resides in the fact that they have, in recent years, reached unprecedented heights of noise and virulence. It is patent that something is amiss, either in the school, their communities, or both, which calls for study, lest education lose some of the confidence it has enjoyed in the past 75 years. Leadership should be fully informed of the specific nature of these attacks, who is responsible for them, and what needs to be done to counter them effectively.

The Anatomy of Criticisms of Education. Research cited by Brickman⁹ indicates that pungent criticisms of the schools probably were common even prior to the Revolutionary War. In the past century a serious controversy raged around the question of religion in the public schools of New York City (*circa* 1840), and the Reverend Matthew H. Smith bitterly assailed Horace Mann in particular and "godless schools" in general in 1846.¹⁰ More recently (1924) Upton Sinclair referred to the National Education Association as an "educational Tammany Hall," and the syndicated columnist Paul Mallon vehemently criticized poor teaching of school subjects in the early 1940's.

What is the nature or the anatomy of the long standing criticism in its present, violent, post World War II incarnation?

⁹ One of William Brickman's reviews of the literature pertaining to critics and criticisms appeared in *School and Society*, October 27, 1951.

¹⁰ Edgar W. Knight, *Readings in Educational Administration* (New York, Henry Holt and Co., 1953). A compilation of source material which reflects public attitudes and professional thinking in three centuries. Cf. pp. 404-409 for letters exchanged by Smith and Mann.

A reasonably clear understanding of this question is categorically necessary for the educational leader. Even his survival in an educational role may depend upon it. It scarcely needs to be added that parents and teachers, too, need to have a grasp of developments.

In general, the criticisms seem to fall into three categories:

(1) *Criticisms of the quality of learning in the schools.* Typical comments: "Children aren't learning to read as well as they used to." "When Tom entered the 'Someville' schools he was a year below grade because they didn't teach him anything in 'Noville' schools." "My child doesn't do anything all day long but play; they never teach him anything."

(2) *Criticisms of educational policies and procedures.* Typical concerns: "Children don't learn their ABC's any more." "Grade standards have been abolished and everybody gets promoted whether he works or not." "Betty can print but she can't write—and she's in *third* grade!" "How can I tell how well my child is doing when they don't have any report cards?" "The modern program is all field trips, movies, assembly programs, and finger painting."

(3) *Criticisms of the school's social and educational values.* Typical charges: "The schools are godless." "Schools are undermining free enterprise by eliminating competition." "There is no discipline, the children do whatever they please." "Schools are teaching socialism and destroying democracy."

Some measure of the severity of the attacks, and the genuine alarm of educators, is reflected in the fact that two influential organizations have felt justified in issuing entire yearbooks which analyze both criticisms and critics. The Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development published *Forces Affecting American Education*,¹¹ and the John Dewey Society prepared *Educational Freedom in an Age of Anxiety*.¹² Both are carefully written treatments of the problems of attacks and

¹¹ The Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1953 Yearbook, *Forces Affecting American Education* (Washington, D. C., The Association, 1953). Cf. Chapter III by Robert Skaife for a review of groups affecting education.

¹² H. Gordon Hullfish (ed.), *Educational Freedom in an Age of Anxiety* (New York, Harper and Brothers, 1953).

help to counteract absurd accusations and rumors. The National Commission for the Defense of Democracy, established by the Delegate Assembly of the National Education Association in 1941, and the National Citizen's Commission for the Public Schools,¹³ founded in 1949, are examples of groups working in the interests of good education in the face of unreasonable and biased assaults.

Who Are the Critics of Education? Since the nature of specific groups and the identity of given individuals who criticize tend to change from time to time, the attention of administrators and others who wish to be informed is directed here to the types of organizations and persons involved.¹⁴ In general, these critics can be classified broadly in two groups: the friendly and constructive, and the unfriendly and destructive. Fortunately, the former group is much the larger of the two. Unfortunately, the latter is vocal, and often influential, out of all proportion to its size.

Constructive local critics. By and large, the school may count many well-meaning and interested citizens as its real friends. These people take an active interest in the school's program, turn out regularly for meetings, and stand ready to contribute to the school through participation. However, they reserve the right of all good friends to be critical of results, to point to ways of improving the quality of the program, and to act as self-appointed watchdogs. They may not always be correct in their interpretation of what they observe, but they may be depended upon to listen to explanations with interest and objectivity.

This group may be further divided into two sub-categories: the parents of children now attending school, and those public spirited citizens who choose to remain in touch with the school after their children have been graduated (if they had any to begin with). As regards the former group, James Hymes insists that leaders may safely make the following assumptions: (1)

¹³ 2 West 45th St., New York City. Henry Toy, Jr., Executive Secretary.

¹⁴ Two excellent source books for information about attacks on schools are: Ernest O. Melby and Morton Puner, *Freedom and Public Education* (New York, Frederick A. Praeger, Inc., 1953), pp. 135-215; and Sturges F. Cary (ed.), *New Challenges to Our Schools* (New York, W. W. Wilson Co., 1953), pp. 100-172.

parents prize their children, (2) they have their children's best interests at heart, (3) they want to be in touch with their children's lives, and (4) they want to participate in making their children's schooling more effective and worthwhile.¹⁵

*Destructive critics.*¹⁶ The sometimes disturbing and often confusing fact revealed by an analysis of education's critics is that the purposes and motivations of the various groups are so divergent as to make it well-nigh impossible to generalize about them. The problem is further complicated by the understandable reluctance of some groups to reveal their real purposes. It is not the intention here to characterize in detail these organizations and individuals, but merely to summarize broadly whom they appear to be and how they work.

(1) *The low tax-rate people.* The American people are taxed at a rate which is unlikely to be alleviated in the near future. Federal taxes, both direct and hidden, which take a tremendous toll of the taxpayer's dollar, are beyond the immediate jurisdiction of the voter. Local taxes, on the other hand, can be controlled by popular vote. Those who, for personal reasons, believe in lower taxes frequently find the willing ear of the general public when they claim that schools cost too much money, that it is being spent wastefully, that schools need to cut down on "fads and frills."

(2) *Educational reactionaries.* There are those in modern America who have viewed the drift of education away from the classical ideal with fear and foreboding. They have generally not relinquished their deep conviction—sometimes tacit, sometimes forthrightly stated—that education is for the socially and intellectually qualified. The extension of public schools to include *all* American children and youth appears to them to be a deliberate waste and dilution of education. They point with scorn to the poor quality of the school's product, claiming

¹⁵ James L. Hymes, *Effective Home-School Relations* (New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1953), pp. 13-20.

¹⁶ Much of the evidence concerning critical groups is reported in "fugitive" materials: pamphlets, magazine articles, and brochures. This section is adapted from the following sources: The N.E.A. Defense Commission's report; the A.S.C.D. 1953 Yearbook, *Saturday Review of Literature*, September 8, 1951; *Progressive Education*, January, 1952; Melby and Puner, *op. cit.*; Cary, *op. cit.*; all quoted references, and various additional items in the chapter bibliography.

that "when I went to school there was no nonsense about catering to the child who cannot learn from the great classics, great ideas, and pure subject matter."

(3) *Political-social reactionaries looking for "reds."* In every era for centuries there have been alarmists and witch-hunters who see in every liberal idea or person a threat to narrowly interpreted "American ideals." To them, ideals are "American" largely to the degree that such ideas conform to their own personal interpretations. It is extremely simple for these people to view *any* change as dangerous. If they had their way, there would be no changes in the school's program except those which had been made respectable by 50 years of history—and history as the reactionary sees fit to endorse it.

(4) *The religiously bigoted and biased.* Some people never have forgotten the American school's original link with the church as preserved in such documents as the "Old Deluder Satan" Act. This document, officially called the "Massachusetts School Ordinance of 1647," postulated the need for publicly supported education to protect the young from "the chief project of that old deluder Satan," namely, ignorance of the Scriptures. Although indebted to religion for the initial support in New England, it is clearly impossible for the schools as a social institution serving *all* the people, with interpretations of religion far more divergent than in Massachusetts in 1647, to be influenced by sectarian dogma without becoming embroiled in bickerings or even open conflict. This fact probably has not been adequately recognized by those who would have the schools engage in religious instruction. Perhaps they have not sensed clearly that religious teaching compatible with their tenets would be totally unacceptable to others. Groups of these people, nevertheless, unremittingly legislate for introduction of religious instruction in one form or another, thereby hoping to stem the tide of what they call "godlessness." Educational leaders opposing religious observances such as Bible reading become suspect as irreligious (despite the fact that they may be deeply religious) because they oppose what threatens to create sectarian schisms.

(5) *Genuine subversives.* Subversives may be defined as

those attempting to undermine the existing structures of society by other than legal means. Genuine subversives are probably few in number and are, for obvious reasons, difficult to identify with respect to efforts aimed at destroying the public's confidence in universal education. Those who are active almost inevitably seek to associate themselves with other groups of critics and probably can be differentiated best by their uncompromising opposition to any move which promises peaceful solutions of problems creating distrust in the schools.

(6) *Disgruntled teachers.* Not all of the school's belittlers work from without. Within the ranks of the profession may be detected those individuals who are destructively critical because of feelings of personal insecurity. Such teachers may have been asked to change obsolete methods, for instance, and found themselves incapable of doing so. Hence, they become critical of peers and programs. Again, the borer-from-within may be a person frustrated by unrealistic aspirations in the teaching field. Whatever the source of their dissatisfaction, disgruntled teachers are among the critics capable of doing extended harm because they are assumed to know what they are talking about when they direct verbal barbs at colleagues and curriculum. The creative leader needs to be especially alert in recognizing the dissident and disloyal faculty member since he easily can become the administrator's most dangerous and implacable foe.

(7) *The neurotic or badly adjusted parent or layman.* The source of some destructive criticism may be traced to the individual who rises in wrath against the school for some imagined slight or fancied deficiency in its program. His child may not have been treated as the parent believes was his due, the child may have failed to get the leading part in some school function, or a teacher may have unwittingly treated the child in a way which could be interpreted by the parent as evincing prejudice or discrimination. The psychologically unstable citizen sometimes may succeed in precipitating a community uproar by making a personal crusade against the school. Experienced schoolmen probably learn in short order to recognize the poten-

tial dynamite in the person who explodes or retains an injured air out of all proportion to the importance of the event or circumstance which triggered it.

(8) *Racketeers.* Some of the critics are apparently in business for the purpose of making financial profit from the furor they cause in schools. For example, they may distribute irresponsibly written pamphlets from which they stand to make money. Such pamphlets have had wide distribution in areas where controversies have arisen in regard to the schools. Harding¹⁷ reports that one organization attacking schools netted an estimated \$45,000 for a single year's activities.

(9) "Super-patriots," "dogma peddlers," "race haters." A miscellaneous and ill-assorted collection may be lumped here to complete this list of those who undermine confidence in the schools. The more vehement and unreasonable persons in this general category might well be classified with the neurotic, except that they tend to be banded together in some organization which serves as a vehicle for their questionable views. They often have some specialized brand of salvation for the human race, generally rife with emotionalism and further laced together with the unreasoned belief that it represents a panacea. If some had their way the schools would become a caste-class institution, a place of special privilege, and provide grossly unequal opportunity.

Leadership at Work in Building Good Relations. Since the history of American education has been punctuated with frequent and continuous attacks upon the schools,¹⁸ leaders have spent an inordinate amount of time in attempting to meet each attack as it appeared. While specific action in the face of a current attack obviously makes sense, it is also essential that a long-term, constructive approach be taken. Such a long view, for example, involves the creation of a policy which diminishes the likelihood that there will be large-scale criticisms in a par-

¹⁷ Lowry W. Harding, "Influences of Commissions, Committees, and Organizations Upon the Development of Elementary Education," *The American Elementary School, op. cit.*, Chap. VII, p. 221.

¹⁸ Cf. Edgar W. Knight, *op. cit.*

ticular locality. Good relations, built over a period of years and based on sound principles, are capable of accomplishing this end, or, at least, of reducing the possibility of public alarm over routine sniping.

Some Procedures That Forestall or Weaken Attacks. It must be borne in mind that each individual barrage of barbs aimed at the educational program is unique to the situation in which the individual school finds itself. The causes are complex, the attackers aligned in special combinations, and their purposes activated by different events. While there is some justification in believing that certain attacks have been organized on a nation-wide basis, it is safe to assume that most of them arise from local conditions, currently aided and abetted by a national concern over problems—from crowding to teacher shortages—which harass education. No standard formula for successfully meeting these attacks appears to be forthcoming. However, certain broad principles of procedure may be discerned:

- (1) Concentrate on the positive building of good public relations rather than engage in mutually destructive counter-attacks.
- (2) Recognize that different strategies are needed for dealing with the malicious critic, the friendly critic, and the uninformed or professional gossip who spreads rumors merely because he seeks an attentive audience.
- (3) Build on the fact that children and teachers are the school's best public relations agents. Professionally satisfied teachers and happy children are strong bulwarks against any attack.
- (4) Build good group morale in a school, which can be depended upon to help the "problem teacher" to find greater satisfaction in the job, so that his disgruntled criticisms are progressively reduced in number and severity.
- (5) Keep in mind that certain cases of parent-community concerns and/or criticisms may be justified. No school is completely guiltless, no staff is composed of infallible teachers. A frank recognition and admission of weaknesses can well help to create an atmosphere of mutual trust and confidence. "Whitewashing the pump does not purify the water!"

- (6) Recognize that all criticisms are not an organized plot to "get" the school or the administrator. Delusions of persecution are symptomatic of hysteria.
- (7) Under all conditions avoid "mudslinging." Intelligent and reasonable answers even to emotional charges are a superior defense. Besides, educational leadership demeans itself by trading insults. Since the leader is usually less skillful at throwing vitriol, he is quite likely to emerge from such combat considerably the worse for wear.

Dispelling Community Concerns Through Applied Common Sense. Throughout the country there are a number of common concerns and questions which the public is raising which deserve detailed treatment. This section seeks to select some of the more pressing ones and to propose common sense procedures in allaying them. Throughout the following presentation an attempt is made to emphasize the fact that good public relations are an all-staff function. Each teacher is a "leader" to the degree that he participates effectively in the program, both as an individual and as a functioning member of the group. *Administrative* leadership is primarily concerned with *informing* the teachers of the nature and source of criticisms, *encouraging* the teachers, individually and collectively, to find fruitful solutions to problems, and *assisting* them to work out these solutions in practical terms.

REPRESENTATIVE CONCERN^S OF PARENTS AND CITIZENS

Is the quality of subject matter learning deteriorating?

COMMON SENSE ANSWERS

Children's achievement has steadily improved for the past century. Evidence is clearly in the school's favor, and a strong case can be made.¹⁹

¹⁹ A useful booklet which summarizes certain facts regarding children's achievement is: B. R. Rock, *Children's Achievement: Today and Yesterday* (Austin, Texas, The Texas Elementary Principals and Supervisors Association, 1952). Rock reviews some of the studies of achievement and concludes that ". . . findings . . . point to the superiority of the schools of more recent time over those of earlier years," despite the fact that today all children are educated while schools in the past dealt with a select group.

**REPRESENTATIVE CON-
CERNs OF PARENTS
AND CITIZENS**

Is the "American heritage" being neglected? Are children developing an appreciation of our history?

Is the decline in assigning homework harmful to learning?

How can we know how well our children are doing if comparative grading is abolished? (i.e., if ABC type grades are not used.)

Is "100% promotion" robbing children of the incentive to learn

COMMON SENSE ANSWERS

The modern school contributes significantly to building firm foundations of appreciation and knowledge of our country's basic principles. Democratic values are enhanced by an understanding of their origins and development. The old memoriter approach to dates and events has been replaced by an attempt to understand the *sweep* of historical development, especially in grades 1-8.

Uniform assignments cannot be made to fit a group of children, each of whom is unique. *Recreational* homework done for fun, *voluntary* homework as a natural outcome of interest, and *individualized* homework tailored to suit a given child's needs more than compensate for the one-time practice of assigning the same task to everyone.

The traditional system of grading was devised to symbolize pupil progress. It is not any more objective than parent-teacher conferences, but merely *appears* to be so, and often formal grades are distinctly misleading.²⁰

The practice of "100% promotion" is a myth. Few schools be-

²⁰ For a detailed discussion of reporting pupil progress, see Chapter Eleven.

because it removes the fear of failure?

lieve or implement such a concept. Modern schools are more concerned with *proper placement* of learners so that they may be well adjusted to their peers. Emphasis is placed on motivation within the classroom rather than motivation by fear of failure.²¹

Does not de-emphasis upon competition tend to harm society in the long run since real life is full of competition?

Life is a combination of competition and coöperation. The home is primarily based on coöperation, as are many other fundamental social organizations. Competitive skills are normally learned in life situations outside the school, but coöperation must be *taught*.

Is not the curriculum becoming crowded? Do we need all the fads and frills?

Overcrowding of the curriculum is a cause for concern, but with *what* is still an open question. Coöperative examination of the total demands upon the school should help parents reassess their conception of what needs to be eliminated.

Are children being allowed too much freedom? Is discipline degenerating?

The shift in emphasis is away from imposed, outside controls to inner self-discipline. The *outward aspects* are likely to appear less orderly, but the test is whether or not children are capable of managing their own affairs more and more effectively as they progress through school.

Are the schools defaulting in the

There has been steady progress

²¹ See Chapter Eleven for a presentation of "continuous progress" approach to promotion, and Chapter Ten for views regarding improved grouping as a partial solution to promotion problems.

REPRESENTATIVE CON-
CERN'S OF PARENTS
AND CITIZENS

teaching and building of ethical character?

COMMON SENSE ANSWERS

on the national front in the strengthening of moral values among people in general. Our treatment of minority groups, international gangsterism, and concern for the welfare of the underprivileged are evidences. The school may rightfully claim some share of responsibility for this improvement.

The above list could be extended almost indefinitely, but perhaps sufficient illustration has been given to demonstrate a more promising approach to meeting the concerns of the public. Where concerns are expressed, a frank and thorough discussion of the situation should ensue. It is particularly important that professional educators avoid overwhelming the layman with technical evidence or esoteric jargon. School people should strive to explain their programs in terms which can be understood by all. Too great emphasis cannot be given to the importance of this communication taking place on a level of common language understanding.²²

LEVELS OF SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS

School-community relations are complex because they are composed of a variety of types, procedures, activities, and levels of performance. Typical practice is usually limited to a small fraction of the total possibilities. The common error of many educators is to concentrate on only one or a few means of building good relations, thus denying to themselves the rich potentialities of the others.

²² For an excellent guide in making language simple, cf. Rudolph Flesch, *The Art of Plain Talk* (New York, Harper and Brothers, 1946). An example of plain talk in education: Wilbur A. Yauch, *How Good Is Your School?* (New York, Harper and Brothers, 1951).

What form school-community relations take is closely related to the educational insights and professional values of the leader. If his conception of a good school is limited to the notion that it operates in a social vacuum, he will be inclined to discharge his responsibility by a simple accounting to the public through annual reports, or an occasional news letter. If, however, he identifies good relations as a product of coöperative activities, engaged in by both school and community, it is apparent that the formal report will be entirely inadequate.

In the paragraphs below an attempt is made to define five levels on which the school may attempt to relate itself to the community, leading from the simple to the complex. Each level of interpretation stems from and largely includes the ones preceding it. That is, Level One is absorbed by and becomes a part of Level Two, etc., while Level Five is inclusive of the four preceding it.

Level One: Factual Publicity. The least imaginative level of performance is that of "good publicity." Here efforts are expended to see that the public is constantly informed about what the school is doing, through such media as the superintendent's annual report, news items in the daily paper, brochures, handbooks, pictorial presentations of the school's program, radio and television programs, public performances of various groups in the school such as the marching band, winning teams, choral groups, or deliberately constructed parent education programs, in which the intention is to demonstrate some aspect of the school's prowess, cultural contribution, or service.

At this level, the assumption is that the school will have good relations if it does its job and if the public is informed about what is going on. It is essentially a one-way communication system, with all the information flowing from school to community. Whether the public is impressed, and whether it approves, is difficult to gauge from the results of this type of activity.

Level Two: The Community as a Resource for the School. At a higher level of conception is the practice of binding the school and community closer together through the use of the

community as a resource for educational materials. The field trip, the use of specially competent citizens as a resource for enrichment of the school's program, calling on parents and others to help promote some phase of the school's responsibility, such as occurred during the recent war in bond drives, Red Cross roll-calls, and so on, are examples of this kind of relationship.²³

It is often substantially true that "the way to make a friend is to ask him to do you a favor." This homely axiom typifies a relationship in which the community welcomes a degree of gentle exploitation and becomes more familiar with the school as a by-product of its contacts. The use of the community as a resource is reasonably effective when it embraces the Level One concept—supplementary information about the *whole* program that will serve to round out the public's understanding. Too great reliance upon the public merely as a resource might give parents a distorted picture of the school; they might conclude that what they come into contact with is entirely representative of the total program.

Level Three: The School as a Resource to the Community. Here the school seeks to bring to its community relations a two-way quality. Adult education classes are organized, shops are used for hobby groups, gyms are used for recreational purposes by adults. Chicago, recognizing the value of this approach, passed a referendum in 1952 to provide funds for what is called "The Lighted Schoolhouse Program," to permit and encourage community use of the schools. Research by Reinsch²⁴ indicated a substantial majority of schools in Illinois permit use of the school plant for non-school purposes. The trend, apparently, is nation-wide.²⁵

This level of insight into good public relations undoubtedly

²³ For detailed accounts of the expanding concept of the use of community resources, cf. Edward G. Olsen, *School and Community Programs* (New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1949).

²⁴ Robert L. Reinsch, "Policies and Practices of Illinois School Boards in Respect to the Use of Public School Buildings for Non-School Purposes" (Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Northwestern University, 1953).

²⁵ Reinsch, *op. cit.*, pp. 27-66.

is effective, particularly as educational leaders see the need for including these activities in company with the two Levels previously mentioned. If the primary contact the public has with the school is an evening's recreation or entertainment, or an opportunity to receive instruction in areas of interest to the individual adult, the procedure may produce a better *feeling* between community and school, but will not necessarily create better *understanding*. A main value of Level Three lies in the opportunities it affords teachers and community members to come together on an adult level where mutual trust, respect, and confidence may be developed.

Level Four: The School and Community as Educational Partners. At this level educational leadership in school-community relations "comes of age." The leader's initiative makes it possible for community members and staff to come together to coöperate on making improvement in the educational program through such agencies as the Parent-Teacher Association, study groups, and community councils. The work of the school is viewed as a coöperative enterprise in which all parties concerned work for the benefit of the children and youth.²⁶ More detailed descriptions of this approach to public relations will be discussed later in the chapter.

It should again be emphasized here that the coöperative approach to school planning needs to include activities pertaining to the three preceding levels. There is every logical reason for continuing the program of factual information, the use of community resources, and the freeing of school resources for community use. Through this wide and rich four-level program parents and other interested citizens will be in a much more advantageous position to participate more intelligently in working with the school.

Level Five: The School and Community as Interactive Elements in the Processes of Social Change. The least common and most controversial level of school-community relations is the conception of teachers and laymen working together for

²⁶ Cf. Glencoe Public Schools, *Together We Build a Community School* (Glencoe, Illinois, The Board of Education, 1944).

effecting desirable social changes in the community. Its lack of common acceptance is probably due to the failure of creative leaders fully to conceive of its potentialities; also, the traditional interpretation of the school assigns to it a minor role in effecting social changes.

A new insight into the possibilities of schools taking a more active part in improvement within the community is found in the programs guided by the Citizenship Education Project.²⁷ Initiated by Teachers College, Columbia University, this project encourages young people all over the country to engage in socially significant tasks which promise to aid communities to solve some of the perplexing local problems of the present. While this program represents but partially the concept of dynamic school-community interaction, it is an encouraging move in that direction.

In a well-conceived, united attack on community problems teachers are as important as other adult citizens in attacking slum problems, deficiencies in civic health, intercultural antagonisms, or hazards to public safety. The subject matter utilized by children at the upper elementary and junior high school levels in particular often can involve such a problem as local housing conditions and needs. Philosophically, this level is somewhat related to social reconstructionism, of which Brameld, a long-time exponent writes, ". . . education's influence depends primarily on the strength and sanction it receives from the cultural forces with which it is interfused."²⁸ Level Five differs in intent, however, from the viewpoint of anyone who has a design for society and would have the schools work to rebuild the social order. It implies a program in which the community and school work together to improve an environment which both recognize as something short of perfection. In the simple eloquence of Elsie Clapp:

What does a community school do? First of all, it meets as best it can, and with everyone's help, the urgent needs of the people,

²⁷ For a description of these programs in action, cf. Elizabeth Fagg, "Bold New Programs in Our Schools," *The Rotarian*, August, 1953.

²⁸ Theodore Brameld, *Patterns of Educational Philosophy* (New York, World Book Co., 1950), p. 633.

for it holds that everything that affects the welfare of the children and their families is its concern. Where does the school end and life outside begin? There is no distinction between them. A community school is a used place, a place used freely and informally for all the needs of living and learning. It is, in effect, the place where living and learning converge.²⁹

It is apparent that the conception of the community school embodies all of the preceding levels of interpretation, but contributes a significantly challenging and creative element—schools and citizens working together in helping a community to improve itself. The partnership of Level Four becomes extended beyond coöperation in making school life better and into the realm of making the environment of the school better, too. And, in the last analysis, desirable young citizens are the product of good environments which support good schools. In the next section some of the procedures which will help a school to embody the wholesome qualities of all five levels are presented.

COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION IN EDUCATIONALLY SIGNIFICANT PLANNING

Creative leaders who are concerned with the development of the school in ways which promise maximum benefits to children frequently recognize the importance of bringing school and community together in seeking coöperative solutions for their common problems. A creative conception of the school's traditional role of strengthening good elements in American life involves the notion that education is a lifetime enterprise, embracing the improvement of all people whether of school age or not. Effective adult participation in educational planning is a highly functional way in which maturity can be promoted. Adult education classes are too valuable to be belittled, yet such activities are not the sum of effective community education. Participation in planning for increased educational opportunity is equally necessary.

²⁹ Elsie R. Clapp, *Community Schools in Action* (New York, The Viking Press, 1939), p. 89.

Organizing for Participation. While leadership in school-community relations may be exercised as needs arise by any person, either on the school staff or in the community, the focal point usually is the administrative leader in the school. For purely practical reasons this will be true. He generally is, or should be, well-informed regarding school-community needs, projects underway, and resources available. In short, he is a natural clearinghouse for ideas on the one hand, and presumably skilled in planning and working with people on the other. It also is easily within the province of administrative leaders both to initiate programs for significant community planning and to provide teachers and community members with sound counsel if and as required.

Certain conditions facilitate the success of school-community projects in the planning of which both teachers and citizens share.

- (1) The staff and parents must be psychologically ready to work and share in an atmosphere of confidence and mutual trust.
- (2) When parents and teachers come together there must be genuine respect for all ideas proposed.
- (3) Problems presented for consideration must be *real*, not only to the teachers but to the others as well. It is only those problems which are *seen* as problems that will motivate the time and effort to solve them.
- (4) At no point must the teachers use the planning sessions as opportunities to "sell" their own brand of answer to a problem or to lobby for certain material advantages for the school. True coöperation implies that solutions are derived from common agreement. If parents are asked to "rubber-stamp" preconceived ideas the results will be inimical to success.
- (5) Skillful discussion leadership must be developed so that the coöperative group may have its thinking facilitated and not hindered by procedural problems.

The structural organization for discussion and agreement is of considerable importance. If the program of school-community relations is to be carried out on a community-wide level, it may be desirable to give considerable thought to the me-

chanics of the organization, so that there are clear understandings with regard to the rules and responsibilities of those who are involved. The diagram in Figure 7 represents one way in

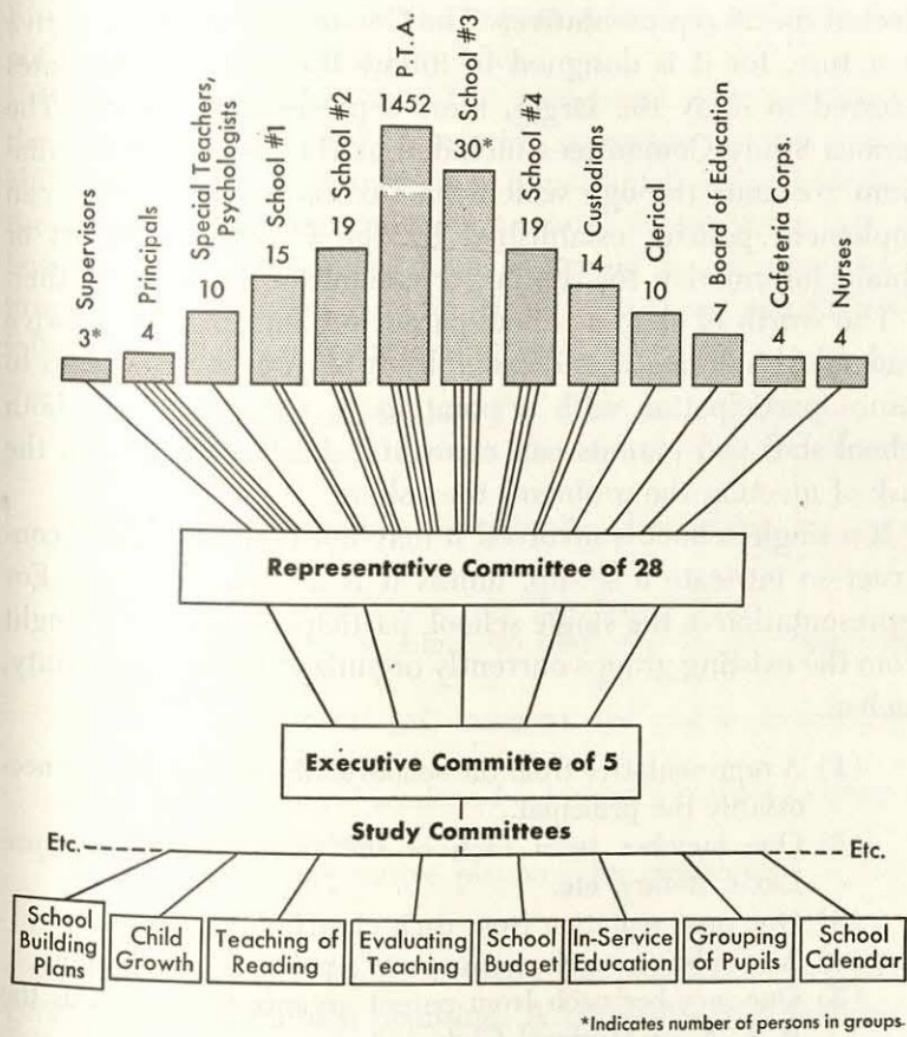


FIG. 7. Suggested plan of organization in a four-school system.³⁰

which a nationally recognized school system created a structure for the participation of all parties directly concerned with the work of the schools.

³⁰ Adapted from Gilbert S. Willey, "Organizing for Curriculum Improvement," *Educational Leadership*, 7:43-48, October, 1949.

The Committee of 28 is of particular importance. A relatively small group representing hundreds of persons, it serves as a clearinghouse and can work efficiently because it is manageable in size. All persons connected with the school can speak through it, thus affording a channel for the 13 groups which elected the 28 representatives. The Committee of 5 is executive in nature, for it is designed to follow through any mandates referred to it by the larger, more representative group. The various Study Committees included at the bottom of the diagram are units through which the Committee of 5 either can implement policies established by the Committee of 28 or obtain information for the larger committee to study further.

The worth of such a school-parent organization to creative leadership is immense and tangible. It is an excellent means to insure participation with a point to it, through which both school staff and parents can contribute fairly and fully to the task of meeting the problems they share.

If a single school is involved it may not be necessary to construct so intricate a set-up, unless it is a very large one. For representation in the single school, participation may be sought from the existing groups currently organized in the community, such as:

- (1) A representative from the school staff, perhaps but not necessarily the principal.
- (2) One member from each of the service clubs, Kiwanis, Lions, Rotary, etc.
- (3) One representative from each church denomination.
- (4) A member from the community's political organization.
- (5) One member each from parent organizations, such as the P. T. A. or Mothers' Club.
- (6) A representative from any and all racial and national groups.
- (7) A member from the local chamber of commerce, and from existing labor organizations.
- (8) A member of the Board of Education.³¹

³¹ Adapted from Wilbur A. Yauch, *Improving Human Relations in School Administration* (New York, Harper and Brothers, 1949), pp. 188-189.

The type of school-community council organization suggested here is much more informally constructed and organized than that of the community-wide council. It may exist concurrently with the larger group, or operate in its absence. Local conditions will indicate which approach is the more promising. Emphasis here is placed on the importance of organization, and not the particular form it may take.

Participation Underway. The scope and responsibility of the general council may be as wide or narrow as the group's ability and maturity permit. It is important to emphasize that the coöperating group must start where its problems and its level of insight are at the time. It would be unfortunate to propose specifically what a council *must* work on, although the following partial list reports what some groups *do*:

- (1) Serve as a "sounding board" for curriculum proposals.
- (2) Discuss basic goals which the school might attempt to reach.
- (3) Revise and improve the school's policy regarding report cards.
- (4) Plan coöperatively for a new building program.
- (5) Share in "gripe sessions" to clear the air for more constructive work.
- (6) Arrange "educational" sessions for clarification of the school's practices.
- (7) Schedule "study" sessions for improving understanding of child development.
- (8) Engage in coöperative planning for community improvement.

An illustration may help to clarify the processes involved in good school-community planning. A certain school had been making changes in its program in order to introduce practices which were more consistent with the known facts of child development and educational theory as substantiated by present-day research. Over a period of approximately three years the teachers sensed a growing concern on the part of parents over the implications of these changes. Upon occasion opinions were forcibly expressed by individuals and indicated that the com-

munity members thought that "the children were getting away with murder," "discipline was bad," and that "the teachers were not teaching the fundamentals." This eventually caused the faculty to question the feasibility of continuing their program in the face of what seemed to be crystallizing parental opposition.

To meet the anticipated crisis, the principal suggested the organization of a parents' council to meet with the teachers and to explore the apparent antagonism toward the school's methods. Through the coöperation of the Parent-Teacher Association such a council was formed. Included in it were representatives from most of the organized groups in the community. After several exploratory meetings it was decided that there was not enough evidence in hand to support an intelligent decision. The representatives frankly admitted that they had no specific evidence of dissatisfaction other than the word-of-mouth statements of a few individuals. As a result it was decided to conduct a community-wide survey of parent and patron attitudes, the results of which demonstrated conclusively that only a minority of 7 per cent actually had been disturbed by the introduction of novel classroom practices.³²

The coöperative enterprise had many unpredicted outcomes. Not only did the members of the council gain materially in their understanding of the school program, but a considerable increase in mutual respect on the part of staff and community was noted. The town as a whole had an opportunity to voice its judgments and consequently felt more assured that the school staff was honestly interested in conducting a program in accordance with the general approval of the parents. The school had gained many friends and lost nothing in the process.

SOME PROMISING PUBLIC RELATIONS PROCEDURES AND DEVICES

It is impossible even to begin to summarize all of the excellent programs for improving school-community relations. A pur-

³² For specific results of such a survey, cf. *ibid.*, p. 186.

pose will have been served, nevertheless, if selected samples of these programs capture the flavor of what creative leadership is doing. Illustrations below depict some of the more promising procedures and devices. The reader is urged to bear in mind that no one of these techniques will, in itself, constitute an adequate program. Only as great variety, used with considerable ingenuity, are used, will the total program produce the desired results. Also, many outstanding attributes of first-rate programs are made of the stuff of good human relations and cannot be reproduced in print.

Effective Publications. Boards of education and school administrators long ago discovered that it is necessary for them to keep in constant touch with the public if the expanding program of education is to be understood and financially supported. They have, unfortunately, been much more slow to see that a dry-as-dust presentation will not be read by most members of the community. Commercial advertisers and public relations officers in business and industry generally are well ahead of professional educators in recognizing the importance of an attractive and uncomplicated presentation of their products. Schools have increasingly been paying greater heed to the experience and wisdom of the publicity experts, with the result that many recent publications of schools have shown improvement both in format and presentation.

The major change in school publications has been the greater emphasis placed on pictorial and graphic media as means to portray a message. *Action* pictures tell the story much more effectively than words alone. A graph, table, figure, or sketch is better than entirely verbal description. When these are well drawn and arranged attractively on the page, their impact on the minds of the general public is superior to that obtained from words alone.

Board of Education Newsletters. Some boards of education follow the practice of keeping in constant touch with the community through a periodical newsletter. The Winnetka, Illinois, Board of Education issued a monthly informal bulletin to its citizens entitled: *The School Board Reports*. In it were dis-

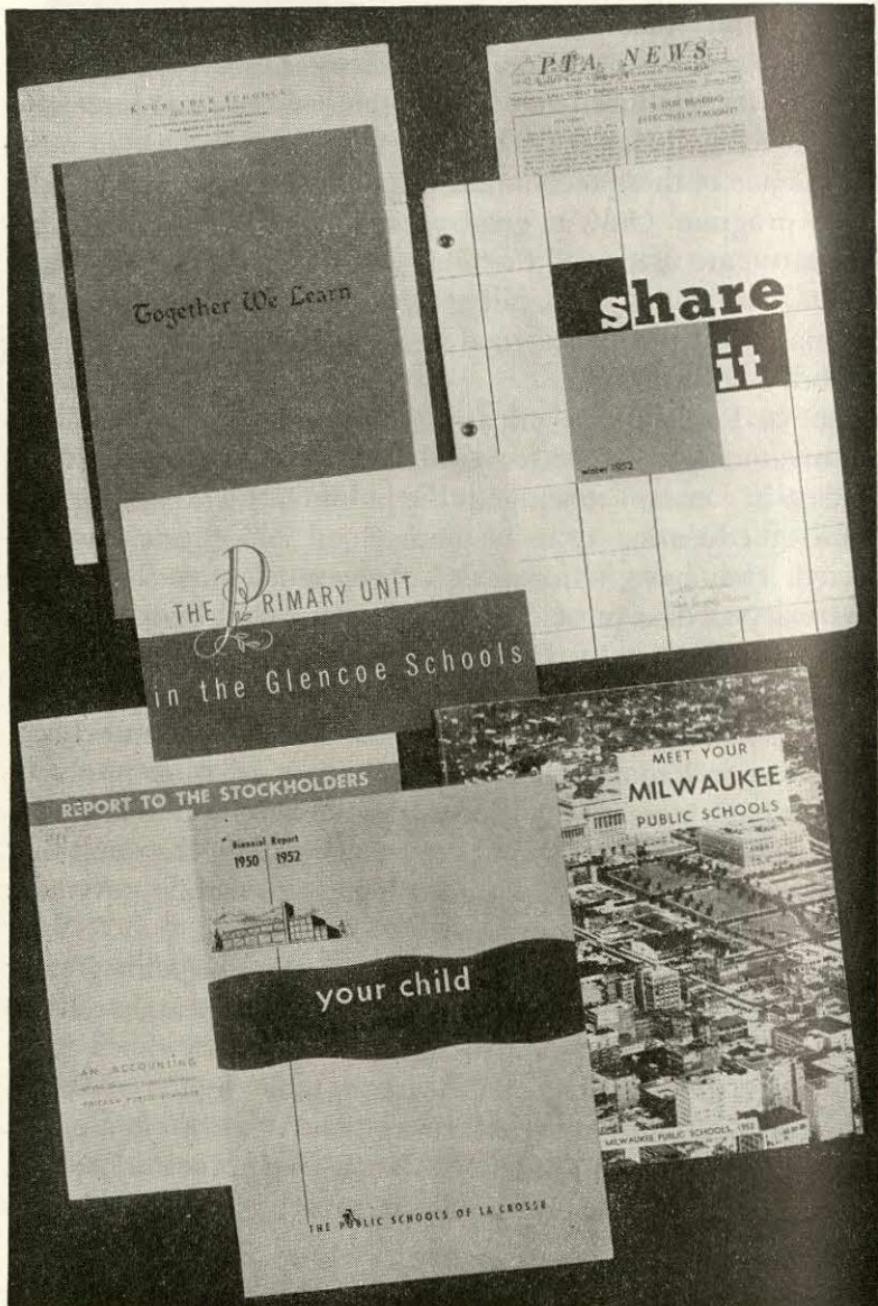


FIG. 8. Attractive publications can help build an expanded base of support for your school.

THE SCHOOL BOARD REPORTS:

Annual Report of the Board of Education

SCHOOL DISTRICT NO. 30, WINNETKA, ILLINOIS

Published as a Supplement to Winnetka Park, September 18, 1952

Winnetka Public Schools

BUILDING NEEDS WINNETKA PUBLIC SCHOOLS

WINNETKA BOARD OF EDUCATION

Annual Report
1948 - 1949

YOUR Community Council
AND YOUR School
Working Together

STAFF BULLETIN

Oak Ridge Sd

Art Teachers—Gemmell,
Wilson, and Murphy—
Hone Street Faculty

Our Best to
a Brother!

Big Sister &
Brother Mai
Things Easy

OPTIMISM

Elgin Public School System Centennial 1853-1953
Please see our School

Design for
better living

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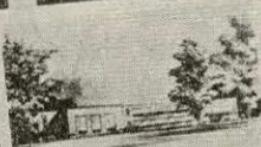
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School Outlook

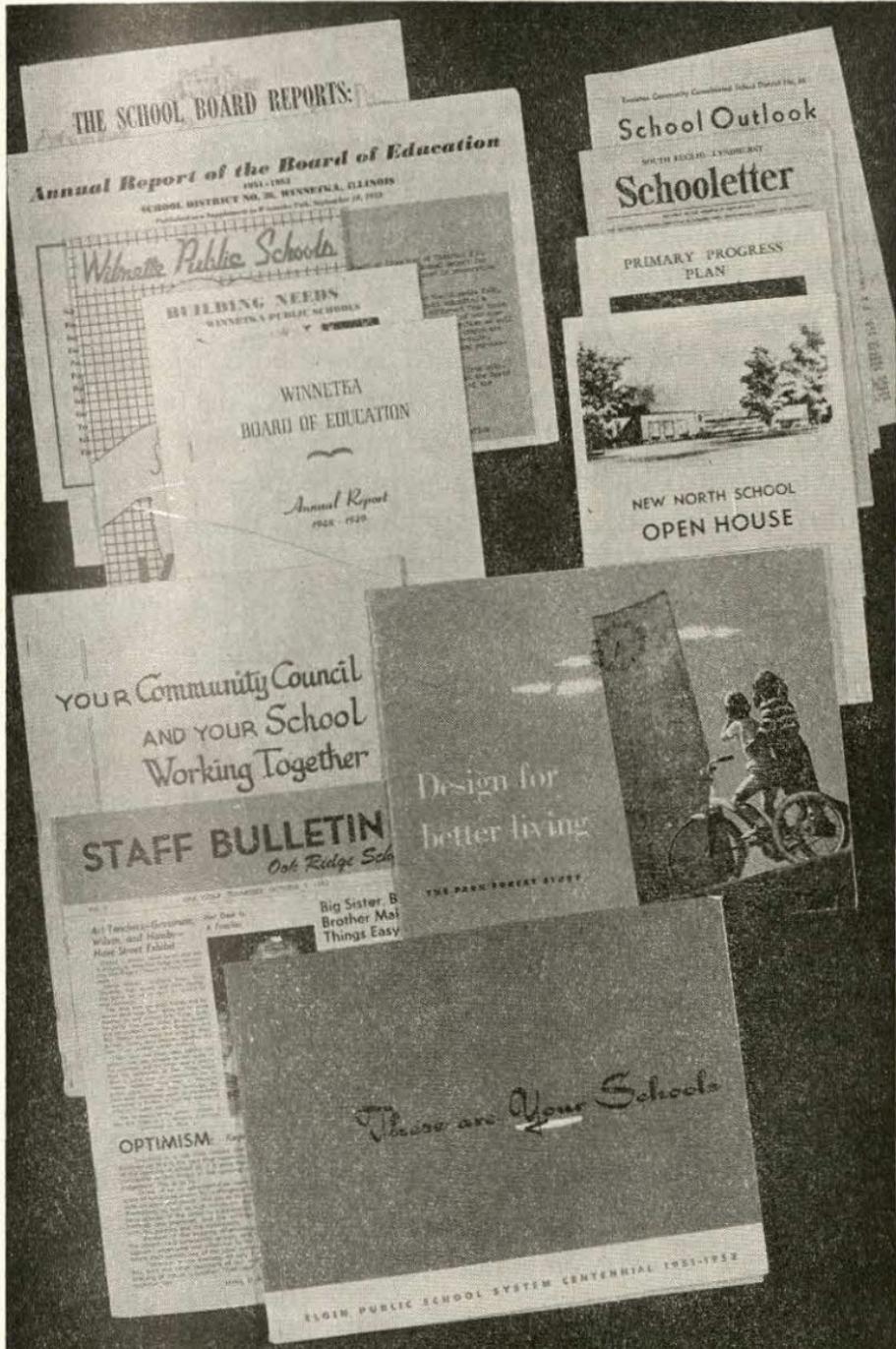
SOUTH FIELD - LYNNBURST

Schooletter

PRIMARY PROGRESS PLAN



NEW NORTH SCHOOL
OPEN HOUSE



good public relations if they are intelligently designed.

cussed such matters as: a school survey made by the State Department of Public Instruction, improvements made in school buildings, enrollment statistics, class loads of teachers, teacher background and preparation statistics, the instrumental music program, and special programs of the schools. The Board also issued an annual supplement in coöperation with the local newspaper, the *Winnetka Talk* which replaced its annual report to the people.³³

The South Euclid-Lyndhurst, Ohio, Board of Education issued a monthly *Schooletter* treating items "pertinent to the progress of your schools." This was published on a half-fold of a regular 8½ x 11 sheet of mimeograph paper, run off by the multilith process. Its contents are similar to those selected for presentation by the Winnetka schools.

The Evanston, Illinois, Community Consolidated Schools published a printed weekly report called, *School Outlook*. Although the issues reviewed were lacking in pictorial material they contained pleasant, informally reported accounts of activities going on in each of the schools in addition to financial, building, and tax information. Issues often explained or described some topic related to the school's program: educational philosophy, discipline, recreation, foot care, or camping.

The schools in the "atomic city" of Oak Ridge, Tennessee, published a monthly printed fourfold sheet of activities of importance to the staff, which is shared with the general public. The problem of public relations has been particularly interesting in Oak Ridge because the city is governmentally owned and operated, an arrangement which also involves the school system. Parents held a tentative attitude toward their continued residence there which, while understandable, probably created a great need to overcome potential indifference toward the schools.

Similar newsletters are becoming abundant throughout the land and, by their very increase, intimate that they are good

³³ Copies of all publications discussed were available, at the time this chapter was prepared, through the Superintendent of Schools in each of the localities mentioned.

means of building acceptance and understanding for the schools—a matter for leadership to note.

The Annual Report of the Board of Education. Titles of representative annual reports to the people are illustrative of the refreshing approach that is eliminating the dull, factual, closely printed report of the 1920's and 1930's. The following list is representative:

Green Bay, Wisconsin, "What Is a School?"

*Milwaukee, Wisconsin, "Our Best Investment" and
"We Stress the Fundamentals"*

Lakewood, Ohio, "Lakewood Is My Community"

*Fort Wayne, Indiana, "We Have Come 20 Years" and
"This Is Tomorrow"*

Elgin, Illinois, "These Are Your Schools"

Chicago, Illinois, "Report to the Stockholders"

LaCrosse, Wisconsin, "Your Child and the School He Attends"

An enormous amount of time and energy frequently is given to the publication of these reports. Members of the board of education depend primarily upon the skills and competence of educational leadership for advice as to the format and content. This responsibility, while often delegated to various members and groups on the school staffs, never should be taken lightly by administrators. The annual report of the board is not only an excellent opportunity to inform the public, but also may well be one of the major devices for crystallizing the thinking of the teaching staff with regard to what they sincerely believe they are and should be accomplishing. The report may easily challenge teachers to come to grips with their own basic values and force them to state them in terms which are intelligible to the professionally untrained in the community. Important to remember, too, is that no school program can be better than its local support permits it to be.

School Publications. In addition to, or separate from, the board reports, some schools have attempted to keep the public informed through the publication of special handbooks and brochures which give a more specialized or comprehensive account of the school's program than is possible in a general

bulletin. The Wilmette, Illinois, and Millburn, New Jersey, schools, to cite two good examples, have prepared attractive little booklets of information for parents of children in the kindergarten. In understandable terms they discuss such matters as the importance of the kindergarten, entrance and registration procedures, what mother can do to help, the organization of a typical school day, and the need to label clothing. This kind of simple information has been recognized as a constructive element in many schools mindful of the fact that good will and appreciation are often built in simple ways.

Less common is the expansion of this concept into other areas of school life. The Glencoe, Illinois, Public Schools have been among the leading innovators in this respect with many publications in which the work of the school is portrayed lucidly, and without "patronizing the patrons" by needlessly "writing down" to them. Among a dozen or more of Glencoe's booklets are interpretations of the three divisions of the elementary school: "The Primary Unit," "The Intermediate Unit," and "The Upper School."

A common school publication, but one frequently underestimated and underdeveloped, as a vehicle to create parental insights is the school paper or magazine, which is composed, written, and published by the children. Typically, this is a collection of stories, poems, and news reports of activities in the school. The school paper, widely distributed in the homes of the parents, is sometimes read with avid interest, partly because it represents concrete evidence of the achievement of the children. If the school staff recognizes its public relations value, steps can be taken to improve its use for this purpose. A large number of children contributing items, inclusion of sections of interest to parents, and careful attention to format and design combine to go a long way in creating outreaching friendliness toward the school.

Parent Study Groups. Many modern parents have a deep and sometimes emotional concern for the welfare of their children. From press and pulpit, radio and television, they have been continually bombarded with the fact that bringing up a child

is a difficult task, one which requires the united efforts of parents, teachers, and community agencies. This concern is often greatest during the earlier years of the child's life. The tremendous sale of books by Gesell³⁴ and Spock³⁵ attests to this fact.

The alert school faculty can serve a great need in the lives of these parents by making it possible for them to come together, with the leadership of teachers and other child specialists, to become better acquainted with the needs of children in general: basic developmental patterns, and the vital role of parents in aiding their growth toward maturity. Through the school parents may be helped to meet family crises, great and small, more effectively. It is clear that such a service can contribute materially to the parents' understanding of the role modern education plays in the life of the child. It is less appreciated that this service can aid public education by providing parents with a foundation for understanding the need for improved and sometimes markedly changed teaching methods, and the necessity for the increased costs which may attend them. Educational leaders overlook an opportunity if they neglect child study programs.

In the conduct of parent study groups, it is necessary to begin where the parents' concerns are, and not where the school might like them to be. What may appear as an important issue or problem to teachers may completely escape the parent. To begin at the level of *teachers'* concerns would ultimately doom the profitable outcomes that might accrue. All of the skills and techniques for the leadership of faculty groups as they plan children's programs must be put into play in the guidance of parent groups.

The Resale Shop. An ingenious device, representative of socially useful services for improving good relations, is the Resale Shop. This is operated by many of the districts along

³⁴ Arnold Gesell and Frances Ilg, *The Infant and Child in the Culture of Today* (New York, Harper and Brothers, 1943) and *The Child From Five to Ten* (New York, Harper and Brothers, 1946).

³⁵ Benjamin Spock, *The Pocket Book of Baby and Child Care* (New York, Pocket Books, Inc., 1946).

the southwestern shores of Lake Michigan. Elementary and junior high schools invite parents to bring to school the clothing their children have outgrown to be resold to others. Money earned in this way usually is divided between donor and the school or sponsoring P. T. A. group. While the amount of money can often be the major feature (the Crow Island School P. T. A. in Winnetka, Illinois, grossed over \$2,000 in 1949, 75 per cent of which was returned to parents who brought in articles), the main emphasis should be placed on the *service* which the school has provided the community and on the real economy effected for many families. The mother who is able to buy used overshoes in February because *one*³⁶ has been lost by her child will probably praise the school that made it unnecessary to buy a new pair for the six weeks of cold weather remaining!

Parent-Teacher Conferences. Reports to parents based on person-to-person conferences can be an excellent means of effecting better parent and community relations, provided this concomitant value is kept in mind. In addition to the necessary exchange of information between parent and teacher with regard to the specific progress of the child, pertinent information and understanding of the entire school program can be explained. The skill with which teachers conduct these conferences can be most influential in determining attitudes toward the school. Since this problem will be discussed in greater length later it is merely mentioned here in connection with effective relations.³⁷

The Parent-Teacher Association. A potent force generally appreciated for the contribution it makes to the development of good public relations is the Parent-Teacher Association. The objectives of this organization are stated in an official handbook³⁸ as follows:

³⁶ Informal research by the writers reveals that for some unscientific reason children almost invariably lose *one* mitten or *one* rubber in late winter. And, come the next winter, they have outgrown the new pair mother had to buy the previous February.

³⁷ In Chapter Eleven reporting procedures are treated in detail.

³⁸ National Congress of Parents and Teachers, *Parent-Teacher Manual* (Chicago, The Congress, 1947). The reader also will find helpful information in *The Parent-Teacher Organization: Its Origins and Development* (Chicago, The Congress, 1947).

To promote the welfare of children and youth in home, church, and community.

To raise the standard of home life.

To secure adequate laws for the care and protection of children and youth.

To bring into closer relation the home and the school that parents and teachers may coöperate intelligently in the training of the child.

To develop between educators and the general public such united efforts as will secure for every child the highest advantages in physical, mental, social, and spiritual education.³⁹

Despite its potential contribution the work of the local unit can languish if leadership fails to offer material encouragement and support for a year's work which measures up to P. T. A. objectives. It is not uncommon for parents, left to their own devices, to become bogged down in mere money-making activities, or "busy work," in spite of the outstanding efforts of state and national officers to help local groups avoid these obstacles. Whether or not the school's P. T. A. succeeds depends partly upon the time and imagination leadership invests in it.

Many local units of the National Congress, given faculty support, have exemplified the best in school-community relations by engaging in some or all of the following activities:

- (1) providing study groups where parents and teachers combine their efforts to understand and help children,
- (2) arranging meetings and study groups where teachers help parents in understanding the objectives and practices of the school program,
- (3) interpreting to the community the needs of the school,
- (4) helping the citizens recognize and accept their responsibility for improving conditions existing in the school,
- (5) working to help the board of education secure and retain well-qualified teachers, and,
- (6) working for adequate financial support needed to insure the best working conditions and resources for teachers and children which the school district can provide.⁴⁰

³⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 11.

⁴⁰ Harold G. Shane and E. T. McSwain, *Evaluation and the Elementary Curriculum* (New York, Henry Holt and Co., 1951), pp. 344-345.

Citizens' Committees. From earliest times in America, socially minded committees have proved to be resources for educational leaders. As far back as 1635 there is a record of a "Boston Citizens Schooling Committee" which was instrumental in founding shortly thereafter the famous Boston Latin School.⁴¹ At present, the National Citizens Commission for the Public Schools represents an important group with which the schools can coöperate in building better school-community relations.

Founded in 1949 to protect the schools from unfair and unreasonable attacks, the Commission is financed by the Carnegie Corporation and the Rockefeller Foundation, and works closely with such organizations as the Office of Education in Washington, and the National Congress of Parents and Teachers.⁴² From the Commission have sprung a number of local and state committees including persons from various agencies and groups seeking to protect and improve education. In addition to serving as a clearinghouse for ideas and for the airing of problems, the Commission provides a variety of free materials and helpful suggestions as to how local groups can work with the schools.

In addition to units of the National Citizens Commission, there are in many localities community councils which are frequently an important resource. Research reported in 1952 by Kay⁴³ indicated that in the Chicago area alone there were 56 separate and distinct councils with which public school principals could develop potentially significant relationships.

THE TEACHER AND THE CHILD: THE HEART OF GOOD SCHOOL-COMMUNITY INTERACTION

Too many school leaders have misplaced confidence in the formal aspects and procedures of school-community relations.

⁴¹ H. G. Good, *A History of Western Education* (New York, The Macmillan Co., 1947), p. 409.

⁴² Cf. Arthur D. Morse, "Who's Trying to Ruin Our Schools?" *McCall's Magazine*, September, 1951.

⁴³ Sylvia Kay, "The Role of the Community Councils and the Public Schools of Chicago in Mutual Assistance" (Unpublished doctor's dissertation, Northwestern University, 1952), p. 104.

They have erroneously assumed that the public will cheerfully vote increased sums in support of the program and that criticisms by individuals and groups will vanish if only the administrator is capable of continuously producing evidence of success. This assumption is sound only to the extent that the more formal procedures are undergirded by a successful *human* relationship. By the very nature of things, most parents are primarily interested in their own children, and secondly in the general welfare of all children.

It follows that good school-community relationships will be found in the satisfactions and successes achieved with *individual children*. If the child constantly returns home from a satisfying day in school and gives a glowing report of activities in which he concretely demonstrates the functional values and outcomes of his efforts, it can be confidently asserted that parents will be largely content. It is *demonstrated* accomplishments of individual children, rather than tables and graphs of group achievements, which most impress the parent.

Confidence in the school's program is also supported by the parent's approval of the individual teacher. His success in guiding the child, his personal, social, and professional relationships with individual parents, are the main foundations of community support. Good teachers produce good school programs, which in turn produce stronger and firmer public relations.

The emphasis which creative educational leaders place on the human contact and relationship between teachers and the general public is well-placed. Even the leader's own relationships, contributions, and abilities are considerably less important than the teachers', partly because he is but one and they are many in number. His integrity and professional competence figure in creating confidence and support, but unless this is buttressed by sound teacher-public contacts, in which the community continually confirms its trust in the schools, he cannot hope to attain good school-community relations. To reiterate this point for emphasis, the quality of public relations can be refined only insofar as the educational leader is suc-

cessful in building an awareness of the need for their vitality in the entire teaching staff. Formal procedures are necessary and important *adjuncts* to the program in which school and community are inspired to unite their efforts for the maximum benefit of their common concern—the children.

SUMMARY

Although he wrote in the last century, Friedrich Nietzsche left a statement in his *Ecce Homo* which seems completely contemporaneous: "Simply by being compelled to keep constantly on his guard, a man may grow so weak as to be unable any longer to defend himself."⁴⁴ Because of persistent and severe criticisms and attacks, complicated by swollen enrollments and acute teacher shortages, schools have been forced to stay on guard until some have been severely weakened. This condition is reflected in such items as a static curriculum, loss of enthusiasm on the part of the faculty, and generally low morale. This situation calls not only for courage, but for the best qualitative judgments in developing a level of school-community relationships which reflects the highest kind of personal integrity. Chapter Six was concerned with the nature of such leadership at work in and with the community.

Criticisms of the schools were analyzed and an effort made to clarify some of the ways in which pressures on the schools can be lessened through the application of common sense and professional judgment. Subsequently, types of school-community relationships were examined and various suggestions offered for their improvement through constructive educational leadership.

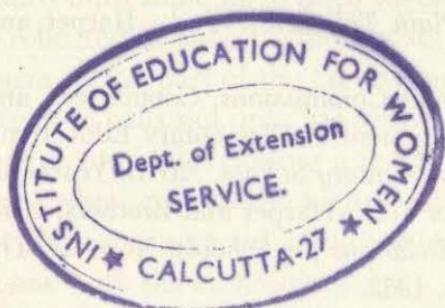
Particular emphasis was placed on the development of a warm spirit of mutual help through which school workers and the lay public can more easily and clearly come to recognize the common purposes they share in improving educational opportunities for children.

⁴⁴ From the A. M. Ludovici translation.

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CHAPTER SEVEN

THE LEADER'S UNDERSTANDING OF CREATIVE CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT



AMONG the diverse functions, opportunities, and responsibilities of leadership, none is more important than determining the nature and quality of curriculum development. This is a thoroughly justifiable viewpoint because the schools have as their main reason for existence the creation of continually improving environments for the guidance of children and youth toward the maturity levels which will strengthen a humane, socially desirable culture.

PROBLEMS OF LEADERSHIP IN CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

Curriculum leadership is not only a most educationally significant task, it is also probably the most demanding and difficult. A number of factors such as the maturity of the staff and local educational traditions combine to require the best thinking of leadership in planning how children's experiences shall be selected, guided, enriched, individualized, and evaluated. **The Leader's Personal Preparation.** A universal problem of

the administrator at the elementary and junior high school levels is that he almost inevitably has certain deficiencies in his personal preparation for instructional leadership. The extent to which principals are handicapped by their backgrounds was revealed by a study conducted by the Department of Elementary School Principals. As recently as 1948 this group reported that in cities over 100,000, *nearly half* of the elementary school principals, at the time of their assignment, had no previous experience in teaching in the area in which they were expected to provide instructional leadership.¹ Rare indeed is the person who has worked with children and youth at many levels and in various fields. Both undergraduate preparation and teaching experience tend toward the specialized. As a result, it is a personal-professional problem for leadership to develop a grasp of desirable experiences at many levels of child development—from wholesome concepts of living in the kindergarten, through beginning reading experiences, to sound viewpoints regarding the social studies for eleven-year-olds or the characteristics of a junior high school core program.

The Time Problem. Time is the basis of a two-pronged problem of leadership. One aspect of the problem is the matter of finding time for creative planning during the crowded school year. Both the physical and the psychological loads involved in teaching and in administration seemingly increase with the years. Teachers are faced with increasing demands on their time since they have assumed a greater share of the task of bringing up children in a confused world, a privilege which many communities have granted the schools. Administrators are often burdened with increased enrollments at a time when buildings, experienced teachers, and money alike are in short supply.

The second aspect is concerned with the matter of *elapsed* time: the years that may have gone by since the leader had the leisure to engage in serious professional study. One's education

¹ National Education Association, Department of Elementary School Principals, Twenty-seventh Yearbook, *The Elementary School Principalship—Today and Tomorrow* (Washington, D. C., National Education Association, 1948), Table 44, p. 139.

becomes obsolescent if time and energy are not continually re-invested therein. Some persons, with views which were "liberal" in 1925, are "conservative" or "reactionary" in their thinking now, not because they have changed, but because they haven't changed while times and conditions have.

The Background of the School Staff. Genuinely able and creative teachers always have been a rare commodity. At the elementary and junior high school level the problem of obtaining and retaining capable classroom personnel has been compounded since the mid-1940's by the great increase in the birth rate and the need for additional teachers which followed. Also, fewer teachers have been graduated than have been required. In 1953, for example, it was estimated that there were at least three teaching positions open for each college graduate in education. In the realm of curriculum development the result is clearly evident: mature personnel who can plan and carry out desirable curriculum designs are often too few; the burdens placed upon creative leadership are many.

Ironically, the more the administrator is inclined to work co-operatively with teachers in a group leadership context, the heavier his task is made by the large number of inexperienced teachers on the staff each year. In addition to administering a school in a time of many problems, it is necessary to accept voluntarily the further task of an extensive in-service education program designed to develop a feeling of groupness, of shared values reflected in a common and consistent viewpoint, and the skills of co-operative thinking and planning.

Community Attitudes. Community mores and values, mirrored in local attitudes, can complicate curriculum development in several ways. For example, there is no such thing as a completely homogeneous community and citizens often have markedly different ideas as to what constitutes a "good" program for their children. Every community is a composite of many varieties of people, with different cultural backgrounds, economic and educational status, and aspirations for their children.

It is inconceivable that a school staff either can or should try to build a program for the school which will meet completely

the desires and expectations of all. The community membership sometimes divides rather sharply into three different groups: (1) the "critics" who were discussed in Chapter Six, (2) the "friends" who are often uncritically in favor of the school, and (3) an amorphous mass of citizens who either are uninformed or simply are not interested in what the school is doing. The first group needs to be reassured or convinced that the schools are not defaulting, the second, that the program will be improved through their constructive criticism and analysis, and the third that it has an investment in education in which greater interest should be shown.

The Socio-Cultural Environment. The social and cultural environment in which the school operates will determine the unique experiences that may be appropriate for children and youth in that locality. The problem is especially keen in a city of 5,000 or more people where there are pronounced differences among the backgrounds of the children attending the school. Children coming from an economically and culturally underprivileged section of town will tend to embody needs quite different in detail from those of children from the "right side of the tracks," even though such needs may be basically similar. And yet, there is usually considerable pressure for uniform content and materials, based on superficial thinking which has led to the conclusion that the only way to treat children and youth fairly is to treat them alike. One of the most puzzling of problems which leadership faces is that of serving different community needs in the face of demands for uniformity. The "grade standard" fetish seems peculiarly strong in those communities where it will work least well. Sometimes this is due to the attitudes of parents in underprivileged areas who want their children to have an education identified in a past century with the children from upper class families.

The Leader's Reach... The challenge to work effectively with a staff in creating a good environment for learning requires leadership with vision and imagination—with "intellectual reach" which stretches beyond the frequently conventional programs of the present. Unless the leader is capable of *conceiving* programs which go far beyond the present, and has skill in work-

ing with teachers to the end that they extend their own reach, less progress will be made than the demanding present requires.

... and the Leader's Grasp. Yet, the leader's "reach should not exceed his grasp. . . ." It is important that his grasp of curriculum problems and his guidance of the planning of meaningful school living be realistic and objective. Reaching blindly toward curriculum improvement without a clear grasp of all that is involved can lead to trouble if poorly conceived programs are initiated. The present chapter, and Chapter Eight which follows, are not attempts to "boil down" a course in curriculum development to a few dozen pages. Rather, they are intended to suggest some of the elements and interrelationships which the creative leader must grasp *in the process of deciding the particular channels he will follow* in formulating and evaluating what the young shall learn.²

Assuming that education is a major activity and responsibility, it follows that the leader and the entire staff of the school must exercise the greatest personal integrity in reaching measured and mature levels of judgment in planning for the nature and quality of the curriculum.

Plato once noted that ". . . time will change and even reverse many of your present opinions. Refrain therefore awhile from setting yourself up as judges of the highest matters."³ Mindful of his admonition, the writers avoid awhile the temptation to suggest which procedures in curriculum development seem "best"—but only for a while.⁴

Attention is directed now to some of the things the leader should understand in guiding curriculum development.

HOW SHALL THE CURRICULUM BE DEFINED?

The term "curriculum," as Webster notes, is derived from the Latin, and originally had reference to a race course. This is a

² Cf. John L. Childs, *Education and Morals* (New York, Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1950), p. 5. A pertinent statement from this source was cited previously. See p. 119, *supra*.

³ *Laws*, 888, Benjamin Jowett translation.

⁴ Cf. Chapter Nine.

particularly amusing root meaning since one can go 'round and 'round in attempting to define it.

One of the first responsibilities of the leader is to guide the staff in its efforts to decide what interpretation of curriculum has most meaning and seems to be most practical. A comfortably specific definition was proposed some years ago by Morrison as "the content of instruction without reference to instructional ways or means."⁵ This is a conventional and widely accepted concept of the curriculum and assumes that there is something definite to be taught at each grade level.

Somewhat more liberal interpretations of curriculum are offered by other thoughtful writers:

<i>Authors</i>	<i>Definition of Curriculum</i>
Edward A. Krug	... all the learning experiences which children have under the direction of the school. ⁶
Harold Spears	... all the activities of the children that are carried forward under the direction of the teachers. ⁷
Dorris and Murray Lee	... those experiences of the child which the school in any way utilizes or attempts to influence. ⁸
William B. Featherstone	It is not very helpful . . . [merely] to say . . . the curriculum consists of all the experiences pupils have under the guidance of the school . . . [It is preferable to define it as] the limited and selected body of experiences which a school deliberately and intentionally uses for educational purposes. ⁹

⁵ Henry C. Morrison, *The Curriculum of the Common School* (Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1940), p. 58.

⁶ Edward A. Krug, *Curriculum Planning* (New York, Harper and Brothers, 1950), p. 4.

⁷ Harold Spears, *The Teacher and Curriculum Planning* (New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1951), p. 9.

⁸ Dorris and Murray Lee, *The Child and His Curriculum* (New York, D. Appleton-Century Co., 1940), p. 165.

⁹ William B. Featherstone, *A Functional Curriculum for Youth* (New York, American Book Co., 1950), pp. 91-92.

In the four sources cited above, the emphasis is upon the *experiences* of children rather than upon *content*, as in Morrison's definition.

Then there are those writers who stress the curriculum as an instrument for meeting *social needs*:

Authors

Roland C. Faunce and
Nelson L. Bossing

B. Othanel Smith
William O. Stanley
J. Harlan Shores

Definition of Curriculum

. . . those learning experiences that are fundamental for all learners because they derive from (1) our common, individual drives and needs, and (2) our civic and social needs as participating members of a democratic society.¹⁰

A sequence of potential experiences . . . set up in school for the purpose of disciplining children and youth in group ways of thinking and acting.¹¹

Further to complicate the meaning of curriculum for school workers, some writers emphasize the *psychological* interpretation associated with the word. These persons propose that the "true" curriculum be conceived as what the child understands and accepts as the meaning of content from among the experiences the school provides and from its attempts to meet individual and/or societal needs. With regard to this "under the skin" kind of curriculum one finds the following constructions placed on the term:

Authors

L. Thomas Hopkins

Definition of Curriculum

The curriculum represents those learnings each child selects, accepts, and incorporates into himself to act with, on, and upon, in subsequent experiences.¹²

¹⁰ Roland B. Faunce and Nelson L. Bossing, *Developing the Core Curriculum* (New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1951), p. 4.

¹¹ B. O. Smith, W. O. Stanley, and J. H. Shores, *Fundamentals of Curriculum Development* (New York, World Book Co., 1950), p. 4.

¹² L. Thomas Hopkins, *Interaction: The Democratic Process* (Boston, D. C. Heath and Co., 1941), p. 39f.

Authors

Harold G. Shane and
E. T. McSwain

Pickens E. Harris

Definition of Curriculum

. . . the continuous activity of the individual interacting with the environmental factors about him . . . the learning or changes in behavior that occur [through experience].¹³

. . . real curriculum development is individual. It is also multiple in the sense that there will be as many curriculums as there are teachers and separate groups of children. More than this, there will be a curriculum for each child—that series of activities and experiences which he pursues under guidance.¹⁴

Four Interpretations of the Curriculum. It should be evident from the definitions above that the administrator may choose from among at least four distinct viewpoints in deciding on the meaning of curriculum that is most consistent with his philosophy and psychological insights and social values. Perhaps the leader will even find that he will use the term in a different sense with different people as he senses how best to interact with them in conveying meaning.¹⁵

The interpretation that the curriculum is subject matter content, or even a course of study, is supported by a substantial body of opinion. It is, in a sense, a view in opposition to the other three which mutually acknowledge that the curriculum is related to children's *experiences*, and what they interpret these experiences to be and to mean.

A Basic Controversy: Subject Versus Experience Curriculum. To exercise leadership in curriculum development, indeed even to interact intelligently and consistently with a staff, the ad-

¹³ Harold G. Shane and E. T. McSwain, *Evaluation and the Elementary Curriculum* (New York, Henry Holt and Co., 1951), p. 128.

¹⁴ Pickens E. Harris, *The Curriculum and Cultural Change* (New York, D. Appleton-Century Co., 1937), p. 443.

¹⁵ This statement does not imply a "doctrine of expediency." It merely recognizes that many persons, particularly laymen, become confused if the term "curriculum" is used to signify something other than the structural framework of learning sponsored by the school.

ministrator and supervisory consultant need to select between the so-called subject and experience curricula. Shall the work children do be built around content? Or, shall it be built around the learner's experience? Either can serve as an interpretation through which an approach to learning can be made.

In order to facilitate the leader's choice an effort is made in the remainder of this chapter to characterize subject and experience curricula and to evaluate them.

A DIAGRAMMATIC INTERPRETATION OF SUBJECT AND EXPERIENCE CURRICULA

The nineteenth-century Russian novelist, Ivan Turgeniev, aptly observed that "a picture may instantly present what a book could set forth only in a hundred pages." In keeping with his comment, Figure 9 on page 226 was designed to communicate as succinctly as possible the nature of the subject curriculum.

The Subject Curriculum. The cone-shaped center of the diagram represents the structure of the subject curriculum. The basic constructional materials are the several subject areas such as language arts and number skills.

At the four-year-old, or junior kindergarten level, the tip of the cone of content, there is, even in the subject curriculum, little or no isolation of subjects as such. Rather, the program is built around "social living." For the Fours this term implies a daily program of guided living planned to help children understand and contribute to group interaction. Learning to share toys and equipment, acquiring self-respect and respect for others, creative expression through clay and water play, and the enjoyment of music, stories, and physical movement are involved in the process.¹⁶

The five-year-old, or senior kindergarten level, continues to stress social growth, but already subject emphases begin. This is suggested in Figure 9 by introduction of *formal* reading

¹⁶ Space limitations obviously proscribe detailed consideration of wholesome school living. Among the excellent books dealing with the youngest in school is Roma Gans, Celia Stendler, and Millie Almy, *Teaching Young Children* (New York, World Book Co., 1952), cf. Chapters 3 and 4.

readiness experiences, pre-primers, word recognition games, etc.¹⁷ While social living permeates this program, as shown, there is the beginning of pre-planned instructional content and

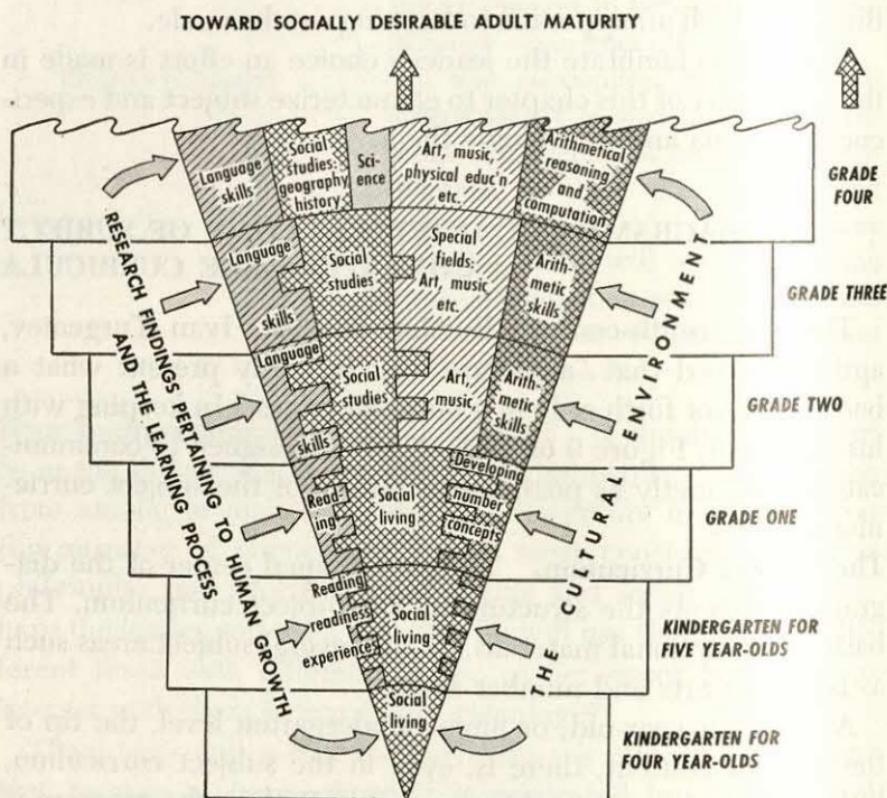


FIG. 9. The subject curriculum. Note the increasingly distinct identity of academic fields and how "social living" permeates other fields to a decreasing extent as children move upward through the grades. Research finding and the culture are depicted as factors bearing on the curriculum.

stress upon subject mastery. Simple number work such as counting and telling time is also initiated at the five-year-old level as shown.

Moving upward into the widening range of content, one

¹⁷ In recent years there has been a trend toward "selling" five-year-old kindergartens to parents as a place in which skills can be developed "before school really begins" in grade one. The writers deplore this interpretation because of the premature and unreasonable pressure for achievement it places on most boys and girls.

finds at the first grade level at least the following major divisions:

<i>Language skills</i>	<i>Social living</i>	<i>Number concepts</i>
Beginning reading	Learning more about home and school	Using numbers: i.e., to determine who is absent
Simple spelling		
Manuscript writing	Community helpers Living on the farm	
ETC.	ETC.	Counting Simple addition ETC.

Language arts work often is scheduled for set periods and perhaps a basal reading series is introduced. Simple units lend form and organization and foreshadow a social studies sequence designed to teach geography and history, and sequential work in arithmetic is begun.

In grades two and above an increasingly clear demarcation exists among the areas of teaching and learning: language arts, elementary science, social studies (sometimes taught separately as geography, history and civics), arithmetic, and the arts.

As a rule, the subject curriculum implies a definite teaching guide or course of study, and learnings are specifically allocated to a given grade level. Sometimes minimum essentials for each grade are set up to be mastered before a child is promoted to the next grade.

Research findings pertaining to human growth and development are by no means ignored in the intelligently designed subject curriculum. They are consistently utilized to facilitate instruction and to help children to retain content learning. Also, the cultural milieu, as illustrated by arrows in the diagram, impinges on what is taught. That is, the environment from which the child comes is analyzed by the staff in an effort to ascertain what and how much children should learn in the fields of human knowledge. Thus, the small rural, large urban, or medium-sized suburban school with subject curricula are likely to vary their programs, insofar as circumstances allow, to

recognize the needs of children, as suggested by the local situation.¹⁸

The Experience Curriculum. Few, if any, schools are dedicated exclusively to a subject- or to an experience-type curriculum; therefore, the distinctions drawn here are oversimplified. It should be borne in mind, for instance, that there frequently are greater differences of viewpoint (as regards what constitutes a "good" curriculum) within the ranks of the staff in a given school than between the average viewpoints of teachers in two separate schools. Also, there is a tendency in many schools for the experience approach to characterize the early years children spend in school, gradually merging into a more or less crystallized subject curriculum in the later years. In the junior high school, and increasingly in the high school, emphasis is usually placed on subject matter *per se*.

The experience curriculum, as illustrated in Figure 10, is depicted as a widening cone of broadening meanings and concepts. One great difference is apparent. While the subject curriculum is centered around a widening fan of subjects, the experience curriculum centers around a widening fan of guided human development.¹⁹

The maximum growth of each child, usually in a social context, is the focal point of the experience curriculum. This may be elaborated as follows:

(1) There are no clearly defined lines, either horizontal or vertical, within the cone to suggest sharp divisions among subjects or breaks between grade levels.

(2) Subject matter is present as a resource upon which to draw in fostering human development, but it is "stockpiled" outside the cone and drawn upon functionally and cumulatively as needed.

(3) Not only is the cultural environment analyzed in the

¹⁸ E.g., The rural school may offer work in farming, the urban school in commercial-vocational fields, and the school in an elite suburb, college preparatory courses.

¹⁹ For a classic and more detailed analysis of the subject-experience schism, cf. L. Thomas Hopkins, *Interaction: The Democratic Process* (Boston, D. C. Heath and Co., 1941), pp. 17-52.

continuing determination of its meaning for a good program; the school also tends to strive to contribute directly to the improvement of the culture (note double-headed arrows in Figure 10).

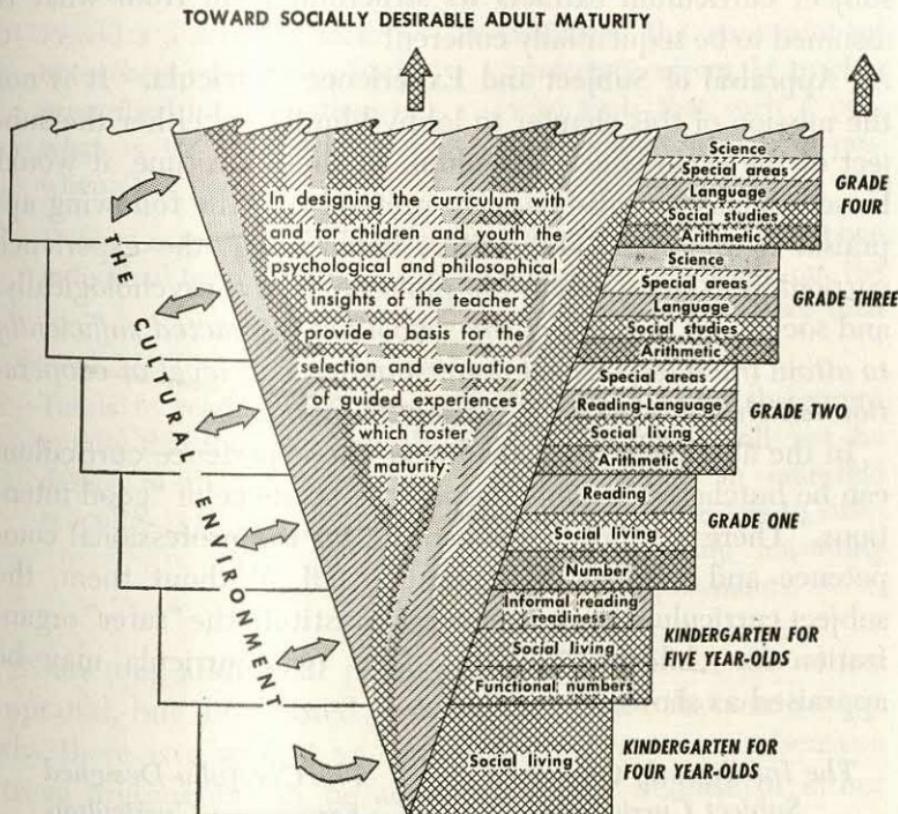


FIG. 10. The experience curriculum. Note that content is woven into the expanding cone of each child's life in school but that it is shared with children functionally. The structure of the curriculum is derived from the processes of teacher-pupil planning. The two-headed arrows imply the school's efforts to contribute to the environment as through socially useful work.

- (4) In contrast with the more methodical appearance of the subject curriculum, the expanding cone of the experience curriculum shifts in structure, design, and subject matter placement from level to level and from year to year as the values and insights of the staff suggest. The structural substance and consistency of the experience curriculum, in other words, derives

from the continuous application of educational values to two questions: "What is in the best interest of the development of these children?" and "How and when can skills and knowledge be shared with children and youth most effectively?" The subject curriculum extracts its structural form from what is assumed to be sequentially coherent.

An Appraisal of Subject and Experience Curricula. It is not the mission of this chapter to lobby blindly for either the subject or the experience curriculum. At the same time, it would be self-delusory or dishonest to pretend that the following appraisal is impartial. The writers believe that the experience curriculum is more defensible philosophically, psychologically, and socially, *if the staff of the school has interacted sufficiently to attain the interpersonal understanding and level of coöperation which the experience curriculum demands.*

In the absence of such readiness, the experience curriculum can be butchered horribly despite the presence of "good intentions." There is simply no substitute for the professional competence and wisdom of a mature staff. Without them, the subject curriculum can conceivably constitute the "safer" organization for children's learning. The two curricula may be appraised as shown:

*The Intelligently Organized
Subject Curriculum*

A—Helps to insure that a reasonably comprehensive or inclusive overview of the cultural heritage is presented to children.

B—Lends itself to such concrete measurement as is afforded by standardized achievement tests.

*The Carefully Designed
Experience Curriculum*

A—Helps to insure that meaningful subject matter for which children sense a need is planned in coöperation with them.

B—Is suited to evaluative processes in which the effort is made to study and guide desired changes in behavior: acceptance of others, wholesome attitudes toward minorities, etc.

- | | |
|--|--|
| C—Provides a symmetrical approach to scope (breadth) and sequence (order) of subject matter presentations throughout the grades. | C—Frees teachers to plan what, in their professional judgment, are uniquely appropriate learning experiences for their groups. |
| D—Provides a sense of security to teachers who enjoy clearly prescribed interpretations of what is to be taught and when. | D—Removes the constraint of prescription from the teacher who finds that such a program inhibits his use of professional judgment. |
| E—Defines responsibility of the individual teacher. | E—Removes the feeling that one must not encroach on the content of a field other than one's own. |
| F—Tends to reassure the community that there is a logical design to the work of the school. | F—Helps to reassure the parent that his child will not be frustrated by an inflexible program, or be left to dawdle after easily mastering content requirements. |

Numerous additional points might be made in the above appraisal, but those listed should demonstrate that one reason why there is a subject vs. experience controversy is because strong arguments can be advanced in the defense of either position. Should the conclusion be drawn that these contrasting approaches are matters of little importance? One might conclude that the difference does not lie so much in which choice he makes, but in the degree of effectiveness with which the choice is carried out. *Such a conclusion is an erroneous one, however, as is demonstrated below.*

Resolving the Issue of Subject vs. Experience Curricula. It seems possible logically to resolve the issue by asking whether either the "intelligently organized subject curriculum" or the "carefully designed experience curriculum" also *embodies the values which the opponent claims for its own.*

Here, if the reader will refer back to the double columns

above, a strong case can be made for a sound application of the experience curriculum. By "sound" is meant an approach whereby the experiences of children and youth involve learning at least as much or more *subject matter* as when subjects are stressed.

Consider point "A": While the experience curriculum capitalizes on needs which children sense, and employs a meaningful approach to it, the able staff is continually working with children to provide them with a sense of the cultural heritage. The conventional subject curriculum is weakened by the assumption that adult logic in planning will assure *children's understanding* of coherent content, while pupil-teacher planning will not. Potentially, the experience curriculum can achieve values sought here by the subject curriculum. The reverse does not follow.

Consider point "B": The outcomes of the experience curriculum can also be measured by standardized devices, but its success in achieving its goals is not determined by such results alone. The subject curriculum does not concern itself significantly with overall personality growth, and thus misses one of the main purposes of an education. Knowledge and skills alone are not a *complete* education.

Consider point "C": While the subject curriculum *pre-establishes* scope and sequence in the program, the experience curriculum *creates* them for each individual class each year. Again, the latter has the virtue of the former. The progress a group makes throughout a school year is inherently sequential under the guidance of capable teachers, and, obviously, there must be "scope" in any program.

Consider point "D": The only true security any teacher can enjoy is the moral security he earns for himself by developing a sense of direction to guide his work with children. Thus, more genuine security for the competent teacher is associated with the experience approach as defined in Figure 10. Security is actually eroded by a subject curriculum where one is continually bound by the tyranny of its inflexible prescriptions.

Consider point "E": Once again, the experience curriculum

has an edge: here the responsibility of the teacher is defined—but by his professional values and judgments rather than by directive. While defining responsibility in a narrow sense, the subject curriculum, identified as in Figure 9, tends unduly to limit responsibility.

And, lastly, consider point "F": It is unsound to assume that parents and other members of the community will be reassured by the existence of a logically designed and published curriculum, however well it is packaged and promoted. As noted in Chapter Six, good relationships depend heavily upon the impact of teachers and children upon the home and community. Children who boil out of their homes to get to school because they love it are the finest press agents a school can have. And the curriculum which uses subject matter skillfully to lend meaning to experience is at least as effective in creating confidence as the program wherein transmitting content is the avowed goal.

Let us recapitulate the views advanced above. First, leadership in curriculum development faces the critical issue of the experience-centered versus the subject-centered curriculum. Second, it is vital for leaders to develop a reasonably clear personal interpretation of opposing theories. Third, it is important to recognize that school districts vary enormously and that the development of curriculum theory must be tempered by awareness of the readiness and maturity of a given staff for participation in more flexible types of curriculum organization. Fourth, there seems substantial reason to favor the "carefully designed experience curriculum" over the "intelligently organized subject curriculum" to the degree that creative leadership can help a staff to use the former approach with skill and good judgment.

The Role of Subject Matter. Regardless of whether a school curriculum is oriented toward the subject or the experience approach, children learn factual information about themselves and their world. No reputable school countenances poor teaching and learning or contends that "it doesn't matter what children learn as long as they're happy and living rich experiences."

This view is highly superficial. As suggested in Figure 10, there is a vital role for subject matter. But content is, in good schools, a means to the end of socially desirable adult maturity rather than an end in itself. The measure of a good school is found in *wholesome changes in human behavior*, and not merely in the amount of knowledge one can recite.

To provide leadership in creative curriculum development the administrator probably will first spend sufficient time to diagnose the curriculum actually in use. This should be done with full recognition of the fact that it will vary from one classroom to another, depending upon the interpretation of "curriculum" which each teacher accepts.

From this starting point, and by appropriate interaction with teachers and the community, policies may be evolved to govern the following important matters: (1) what the curriculum ought to be and what it should include, (2) procedures in applying conclusions as to the nature of the curriculum, and (3) procedures for continually re-examining the curriculum and the assumptions which support it in a given school.

SUMMARY

It must be recognized that leadership in curriculum development has both practical and theoretical dimensions. In acknowledgment of the practical problems of Chapter Seven first considered some of the difficulties which beset the leader: lacks in his preparation, the problem created by the time lag since he last engaged in professional study, the sometimes meager backgrounds that certain members of a school staff bring to curriculum planning, and problems stemming from community attitudes and the cultural environment.

Next, in deference to theory, heed was given to the meanings of the term "curriculum" and the basic issue of the "subject" vs. "experience" curricula was examined and interpreted. It was pointed out that creative leadership must be informed if significant improvements were to be made in curriculum design. In an effort to dispel some current confusion, the last section

of the chapter presented a diagrammatic interpretation of the subject and experience curricula and attempted to gauge the merits of each.

The following chapter is an integral part of the one concluded here, and the two should be considered as a unit.

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CHAPTER EIGHT

THE LEADER'S UNDERSTANDING OF CREATIVE CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT (Continued)



CHAPTER SEVEN developed the point that educational leaders must reach a fundamental decision in curriculum planning. This decision involves a choice between the cultural heritage and human development, between emphasis on the subject or on the learner. In the present chapter, other decisions which pertain to the curriculum are discussed. Each is a matter of direct, personal concern to administrator and supervisory consultant alike.

The material which follows in this chapter represents an experimental procedure of organizing and presenting concepts by portraying them in Figure 11, a color diagram located on the inside covers of this book. This chart presents five positions or viewpoints with respect to curriculum development. It shows how each of these viewpoints is likely to predispose its adherents to accept different views as to the purpose of the curriculum and as to the philosophy and psychology which are assumed to be consistent with good education. The intent of the diagram, therefore, is to present to the educational leader a summary of complex ideas in the area of curriculum with the aid of a visual device rather than through words alone.

SOME ELEMENTS INFLUENCING POLICIES IN CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

Decisions in Curriculum Development. In the interactive process of leadership, as interpreted in Chapter One, the views and values of the administrator, consultant, and teacher interplay and each influences the other. Those ideas which have merit, and which are applicable, presumably become accepted in the form of policies for the school. What, then, are the elements that are involved in decisions regarding the curriculum?

First, there is the basic issue of subject versus experience curricula elaborated in the preceding chapter.

Second, there is the question of the specific purpose of the curriculum: the reason or reasons the staff¹ accepts as justifying the existence and functions of the school.

Third, there is the philosophy which the staff accepts as the foundation of its purposes.

Fourth, what psychology, what theory of learning, in the staff's professional judgment, most nearly coincides with its values and with its professional experience?

Fifth, who shall participate in the process of curriculum development?

Sixth, what shall be the sources of the learning experiences of children and youth?

Seventh, what shall be the organizational structure of the curriculum?

Creative Leadership and Curriculum Policy Decisions. Assuming that the seven items listed above typify most of the elements which school workers need to consider in curriculum planning, what do they require of leadership? In a nutshell, they require that an intelligent policy or set of policies be developed with respect to each, preferably in coöperation with the faculty. These policies reflect value-judgments;² that is, the staff applies its collective intelligence, as distinct from mere pooled igno-

¹ Reference to parent and community participation in curriculum planning are omitted for purposes of brevity and simplicity. Consideration is given to community participation in Chapter Six.

² Cf. Chapter Two for an earlier reference to and discussion of value-judgments.

rance, to the rational development of a sound curriculum. Leadership of merit³ should be competent to contribute significantly to these value-judgments.

As stated at the outset of the chapter, an effort now will be made to provide a synthesis, in diagrammatic form, of various viewpoints regarding the nature, development, and design of children's experiences. The diagram inside the covers suggests the conflicting curriculum theories from among which the faculty of each school must evolve the sense of direction, the momentum, and the consistency which characterize good experiences for children.

A DIAGRAMMATIC INTERPRETATION OF ELEMENTS BEARING ON CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

Leadership can be no better than (1) its insights into the means through which children and youth learn, and (2) its grasp of the goals to be sought through effective learning. In Figure 11 are drawn together selected elements with regard to which the creative leader must have opinions. These opinions may be in the process of being more clearly defined, but *some defensible view needs to be held of each element or there can be no effective leadership*. Possession of such insights does not imply that they will be imposed upon other members of the staff, but the leader must have a clarity of vision not necessarily possessed by others, else it will be a case of the blind leading the blind—or even attempting to lead those who *can see!*

Function of the Diagram. The diagram is intended to serve as an introduction to the range of questions which should be considered in reaching intelligent decisions as to the nature of the experiences for children that the school shall seek to sponsor, and as to the kind of under-the-skin behavior it hopes to motivate in the child's "inner world"—the psychological, inner curriculum in which he has his being. Because it is intended to illustrate alternative curriculum decisions, the diagram, obviously, in itself does not provide *answers*. The chart merely portrays shades of opinion. However, as each

³ Cf. pp. 12ff. for an interpretation of the "leadership of merit."

element is discussed, an attempt is made to indicate the merits of the various positions among which leadership can choose.

The Curriculum Continuum. At the top of the diagram is a broad, two-headed arrow, ranging from deep red through deep blue in color. This represents the range of opinion pertaining to how leadership should work in developing curriculum policies with the staff. At the left end, symbolized by red, is the *reactionary* position. This shades into the positions of the *conservative* and *middle-of-the-road schools*, represented by pink and white, respectively. The *liberal* and *experimental* theories at the right range through shades of light blue to shades of dark blue.

Beneath the arrow contrasting ideas as to what the purpose of the curriculum should be are shaded to correspond with the schools of thought which support a particular purpose. For instance, the reactionary position is defined as "to transmit the cultural heritage: emphasis upon knowledge, *per se*." The rectangle at Level 1 in which this statement appears is colored in shades of red. Other rectangles pertaining to philosophical concepts, theories of learning, types of curriculum organization, and so forth, likewise are shaded to indicate whether they tend to embody reactionary, conservative, middle-of-the-road, liberal, or experimental concepts.

A Word on Terminology. It is extremely important at this point to comment on the terminology used. The five positions ranging from "reactionary" to "experimental" must clearly be understood by the reader to avoid endless controversy over the "meaning of meaning." Each term is a descriptive adjective which is used here as originally defined in Chapter Three.⁴

The *reactionary* school or leader would return to practices identified with the past and generally discarded.

The *conservative* school or leader would preserve things as they are. It will not try out new ideas until they are so commonplace as to be identified with the *status quo*.

The *middle-of-the-road* school or leader accepts new ideas cau-

⁴ Cf. pp. 64-65 above.

tiously. It does not resist change, but neither does it pioneer. The *liberal* school or leader aggressively seeks new and little-tried concepts and procedures which may promise to improve teaching, learning, and the community. It pioneers in settling new land and staking claims, but is not the original explorer of the territory.

The *experimental* school or leader is the innovator or explorer. Here theories and applications that are novel, and hence sometimes resisted, are generated and given a trial.

As the preceding interpretations are meant to indicate, such terms as "reactionary" or "liberal" have no political or social theory connotations, but are merely used as labels. Neither do they carry with them any innate opprobrium on the one hand, or preference, on the other.

It also might be noted that "curriculum" as used in the diagram refers to the structure or design within which children's experiences are developed, regardless of whether this structure tends to be built around subjects or learners.⁵ This is a general definition, deliberately selected because of the need to encompass the various divergent viewpoints.

Basic Emphasis in Curriculum Theory. The diagram suggests at the first Level (directly below the two-headed arrow) that the educational leader, in working for curriculum improvement, must decide whether he is going to emphasize subjects or learners. As this was the issue with which the preceding chapter was so largely concerned it is mentioned here merely to place the previous discussion in the context of the color chart.

THE LEADER AND HIS CHOICES WITH REGARD TO SPECIFIC CURRICULUM POLICIES

As he takes a stand on curriculum policy, and this he inevitably must do, the position of the leader may be examined and deliberate, or opportunistic and intuitive. In these pages

⁵ This simple definition is based on a suggestion from Professor George Beauchamp of Northwestern University, namely, that "the curriculum is a design for the educative experiences of children."

the purpose is to interpret alternative decisions regarding the stands upon which he may decide.

The Purpose of the Curriculum. Four possible interpretations the leader may choose to accept as the purpose of the curriculum are listed at Level 2 in Figure 11.

Leadership which urges the school staff to concentrate on transmittal of the cultural heritage, on knowledge *per se*, has elected to return to policies of a past era, *circa* 1900 and earlier. The decision to interpret content as a means employed in meeting the needs, purposes, and interests of children is more in keeping with expressed majority opinions in educational circles at present, and is so well established as to mirror the *status quo*. It is colored to indicate that it is a conservative to middle-of-the-road view.

The view of the curriculum as a means to establish a design for wholesome, democratic social living probably is held by those administrators of more liberal leanings who interpret "socialization" to mean developing social responsibility and social sensitivity. These consist of the values, insights, and beliefs which it is assumed that maturing, democratic young citizens should be developing. Not yet widely accepted, this position suggests a measure of pioneering in guiding human attitudes to worthy ends, and is liberal in its orientation.

At the far right of the continuum at Level 2 one finds the position of the innovator of ideas as regards the purpose of the curriculum. This place in the chart is associated with the view that the school curriculum has as its purpose the progressive reconstruction of society, presumably in terms of socially desirable goals coöperatively studied and chosen by school and community.⁶

It should be noted that, at the end of the rectangle representing this position at Level 2, there is a reddish tinge identified in Figure 11 with "reaction." This coloration is introduced

⁶ This position is elaborated in considerable detail in two current publications: Theodore Brameld's *Patterns of Educational Philosophy* (1950), and B. O. Smith, W. O. Stanley, and J. H. Shores, *Fundamentals of Curriculum Development* (1950), both published in New York by the World Book Company.

to suggest that there may be a few persons sincerely dedicated to social reconstruction and so convinced of the essential rightness of their views as to be arbitrary in contending to "have the answers." To the degree that any person supports fixed goals or set ideas as to design for society he can be labelled "reactionary." This means reactionary in the sense of being doctrinaire about his pioneer or untried ideas. The true liberal or experimentalist is not doctrinaire. If he is too impatient to work with others in applying the "method of intelligence"—of hypothesizing and experimenting, of deferring judgment, of following paths of group-evaluation change—if he has a pre-determined version of social goals for all, he runs the risk of being guilty of intellectual authoritarianism. And authoritarianism is as old as the pyramids, hence a reactionary return to the past.

Further examination of the Levels in the chart should serve to help the would-be creative leader to consider what he feels the purpose of the curriculum should be.

Philosophic Choices. At least five reasonably distinct philosophic viewpoints can be delineated in the curriculum theory continuums at Level 3. The Aristotelian-authoritarian position of the perennialist,⁷ or guardian of the culture of the ages, is redolent of the past and consequently given a reactionary, reddish hue.

For millennia Aristotle was looked upon as a source of wisdom which was so perfect as to be above criticism. He represents authority enshrined and unexamined.⁸ Rare today is the leader who will choose uncritical acceptance of tradition as a foundation for the curriculum, for in such an attitude are the seeds of cultural regression.

More prevalent as a philosophy of the curriculum, and even as an interpretation of the meaning of culture, is the humanistic

⁷ Considerable use is made here of the terminology in Brameld's *Patterns of Educational Philosophy, op. cit.*

⁸ For example, an erroneous statement by Aristotle in regard to the number of teeth in the adult human mouth was accepted without question for over 15 centuries. So great was the respect for his intellect that even the demonstrably false was accepted.

position which, in the opinion of certain educators and laymen, conceives of good education as a "liberal education" in the restricted sense of study of the humanities: education which is classical and "polite." In approximately the same reactionary-shading-into-conservative philosophical frame is listed the essentialist who would have elementary education concern itself particularly with learning the fundamentals or "three R's."

Robert M. Hutchins is one of the most eloquent of spokesmen for a liberal education which lies somewhere between extreme perennialist and essentialist positions. He scores the perennialist teachers who spend arid years ". . . in the study of Greek and Latin writers without discovering that they [have] any ideas."⁹ At the same time he advocates a liberal education in which the best of Western Civilization is made available to the student so that he can become ". . . a participant in the Great Conversation that began with the dawn of history and continues at the present day."¹⁰

At one time liberal education was the education of rulers, Hutchins notes, as well as the education designed for those who had leisure. On the assumption that democracy has made every man a leader and that industrialization has given every man leisure, ". . . everybody should have the [liberal] education that fits him to use his leisure intelligently" and to acquit himself of the responsibility for being a ruler through universal suffrage.¹¹

At mid-continuum on Level 3 is placed the scientific viewpoint. There will be those who question that this is a philosophy, but no appropriate substitute suggests itself. By "scientific philosophy" is meant the viewpoint that the school should select its content on a basis of research and study.¹² If not a bona fide philosophy, this viewpoint is nonetheless a basis for

⁹ Robert M. Hutchins, *The Conflict in Education* (New York, Harper and Brothers, 1953), p. 82.

¹⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 82.

¹¹ *Ibid.*, p. 84.

¹² E.g., what do oculists have to say about physical maturity and the age for beginning reading? What do topical studies of children's interests suggest for subject placement? Obviously, educators of all persuasions are interested in such queries, but may tend to cleave to findings which support their views.

curriculum policy and hence analogous to a philosophic position.

One step further to the right in the diagram is the pragmatic-instrumentalist philosophy, often too casually referred to as "progressive." Here the leader is likely to be of the pioneering type, and to believe that educative experiences under the school's auspices are desirable to the extent that they serve to further the interests of human development and work effectively in strengthening democracy. Democracy is conceived to be a way of associated living in which the individual is free to attain whatever promise his personal endowment permits as long as it is consistent with the general welfare of his entire social group. Social values and the learner's relation to them are seen as more important than the cultural heritage alone.

The progressive-reconstructionist position is an extension of the pragmatic-progressive views with the main distinctions between them being (1) the tendency of the reconstructionist to be more concerned about social change *per se* than about the learner in relation to social change, and (2) a greater tendency on the part of some reconstructionists to accept a more definitely structured concept of the direction in which society should move. That is, there is more of the pre-planned than of the pre-planning approach to social goals. Carried to an arbitrary extreme this is deemed to justify the tint of reaction symbolized by the reddish coloration at the extreme right of Level 3 in the diagram.

In examining philosophical choices which influence the curriculum, creative leadership makes a peculiarly basic choice in that these decisions permeate all other levels.

The Psychological Foundation. Three major, divergent psychological foundations are included at Level 4. The reactionary mental discipline-faculty psychology approach is generally discredited and has been under constant attack since the time of William James, prior to the turn of the century. Nevertheless, it is included because many laymen and some teachers, either consciously or unconsciously, are motivated by it. For instance, they see merit in "hard" learning, a disciplining of the mind

preparatory to facing the intellectual tasks of life. Among them were—and are—Hutchins' "drillmasters" who would teach Greek and Latin with no regard for the *ideas* of the writers.¹³

Behaviorism¹⁴ and associationism¹⁵ as learning theories are placed at mid-continuum because many prevalent educational methods rely on creating bonds or linkages between knowledge or skills and the learner. Successive trials or drill, rewards, the tying together of cues and expected responses, figure in these approaches to learning and, through long familiarity, are widely accepted.

The perception of meanings and relationships in the process of learning, and recognition that the total environment and the whole learner are involved in the sensing of meanings are qualities which characterize the Gestaltist or "field theory" interpretations of learning. Not yet generally accepted as considerations in curriculum planning and in the guiding of children's experiences, these theories are being applied by liberal leadership and explored by the innovators at the deep blue end of Level 4.¹⁶

Of undoubted importance to leadership is the point developed by Hildreth,¹⁷ who contends most convincingly that a dynamic theory of childhood learning is emerging through belated recognition of the fact that current learning theories are *complementary* rather than *conflicting* in many regards—and in spite of the fact that they may have different basic assumptions. In diagrammatic form (see Figure 12) she presents the idea that connectionism, the conditioned response, and Gestalt-field theory concepts tend to explain *certain aspects*

¹³ Hutchins, *op. cit.*, p. 82.

¹⁴ I.e., conditioning; the view that behavior acquired in one situation can transfer to another.

¹⁵ I.e., the view that satisfaction, failure, repetition, etc., build or weaken connections for the learner.

¹⁶ Several standard works elaborate the theories of learning touched upon here. For background readings, see citations at the close of the chapter to writings by Hilgard, Bode, Heidbreder, Henry, and Dashiell.

¹⁷ After Gertrude Hildreth, "Dynamics of Learning in Childhood Education," *The American Elementary School*, XIIIth Yearbook, The John Dewey Society (New York, Harper and Brothers, 1953), pp. 28-56.

of learning better than do their "competitors."¹⁸ Ergo, one of the great challenges to creative leadership in deciding what theory of learning should undergird the curriculum may well

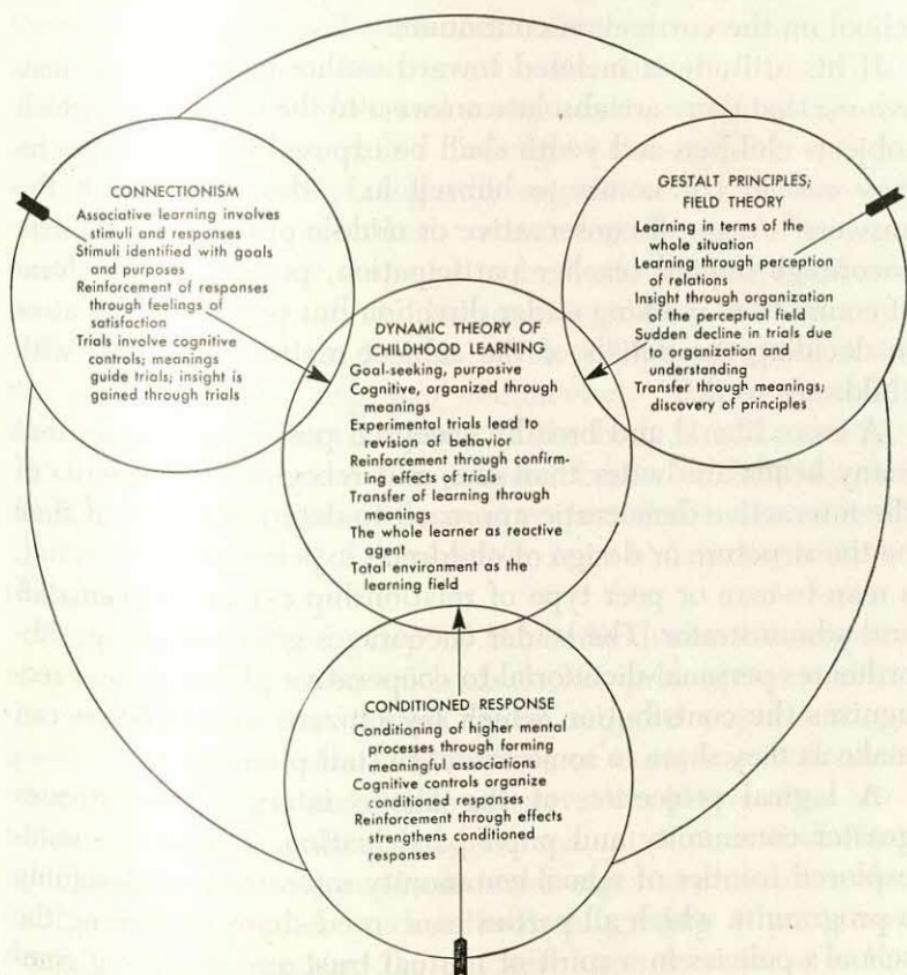


FIG. 12. Chart showing contributions of various learning theories to a central dynamic concept of childhood learning processes.¹⁷

be found in achieving a synthesis of contrasting explanations of learning.

Who Shall Make the Curriculum? The organization of public education places administrators in a position to impede or to facilitate a coöperative approach to curriculum planning. Level

¹⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 45.

5 in Figure 11 deals with the question of who shall participate in curriculum development. Because of the ultimate personal responsibility¹⁹ of the leader for determining policy, his decisions are usually potent ones in deciding the location of the school on the curriculum continuum.

If his attitude is inclined toward authoritarianism, he may assume that there are absolute answers to the question of which subjects children and youth shall be exposed to. Therefore, he may call in (or nominate himself as) "the expert with the answers." Again, if conservative or middle-of-the-road, he may encourage limited teacher participation, perhaps in the form of committees working under direction but permitted initiative in deciding the details of the subject matter associated with children's work.

A more liberal and broadly accepted position concedes that many heads are better than one, and recognizes the merits of the interactive-democratic approach to determining what shall be the structure or design of children's experiences. As a result, a man-to-man or peer type of relationship exists between staff and administrator. The leader encourages group thinking, subordinates personal-dictatorial to coöperative planning, and recognizes the contribution which lay citizens and children can make as they share to some extent in staff planning.

A logical projection of the above interpretation stresses greater community and pupil participation. This is the semi-explored frontier of school-community interaction in designing a program in which all parties concerned share in shaping the school's policies in a spirit of mutual trust and emerging common purposes. (See color chart, Level 5, extreme right.)

If the processes are truly democratic the outcome in the years ahead can be one of great promise. To attain the promise, however, the tinge of reaction (see color chart, extreme right) must be avoided. That is, the leader must exercise caution to see that his and/or the staff's enthusiasm for achieving certain goals, regardless of what they may be, does not cause them to

¹⁹ Refer to page 20 for a discussion of the leader's authority/responsibility dilemma.

coöperate merely with one segment of the community and dominate other segments' views. When this happens, the liberal or innovator risks becoming doctrinaire and autocratic, and reverting to a reactionary mode of thought and action.

Sources of Children's Experiences. Decisions reached at the levels previously discussed largely determine the source of the experiences of children and young adolescents diagrammed at Level 6. If it is every child's birthright to be exposed formally to the cultural heritage, logically segmented for convenient instruction, then a prescribed course of study serves preëminently well. There are assumed to be basic learnings and the school shares them with children as efficiently as the teachers' methods and materials permit. As an intriguing sidelight to this position, Plato long ago commented: "Bodily exercise, when compulsory, does no harm to the body; but knowledge which is acquired under compulsion obtains no hold on the mind."²⁰ Ironically, those who most respect the Western Heritage seem unmindful of this injunction from a major contributor to that heritage.

Recognition by leadership of the individuality of schools, of teachers, and of children, leads to less prescription and to the use of the content outline which suggests scope and sequence in the curriculum. This source of experience indicates what shall be taught and, while conservative, allows some latitude in interpreting when and how content is presented. The middle-of-the-road source of curricular experiences is often the flexible teaching guide: a handbook suggesting what seems desirable but recognizing the teacher's right to exercise judgment and initiative and permitting a measure of pupil participation in planning activities. Source or resource units sometimes are suggested and described in the guide books. Films and books also are recommended. However, the school climate is generally permissive in nature.

Quite liberal as an approach to suggesting experiences is the "unifying theme" as a determinant. This may be characterized as an understanding on the part of the staff as to what

²⁰ From the Jowett translation of *The Republic*, Book VII.

themes or centers-of-interest shall be associated with each age or grade level. Aside from these suggestions, the teacher is presumably free to guide children or youth in a completely permissive atmosphere. Control lies within the teaching situation and supervisory consultants are likely to be available for help and suggestions rather than as directors.

Although it has had vocal proponents for several decades, the emergent planning of experiences by pupils and teachers remains a novelty in most classrooms.²¹ As such it is at present in the hands of pioneer-innovators: a situation in which the teacher, desirably a creative and able one, can design in co-operation with children the kind of experiences suited to each young learner. To avoid educational anarchy, of course, the emergent approach assumes teacher-teacher consultation and coördination of a high order.

Organizational Structure of the Curriculum. Although influenced by the sources of children's experiences at Level 6, the types of curriculum organization presented at Level 7 are a separate and distinct topic. As is evident from a glance at Figure 11, Level 7 differs in appearance from those above it. Although there are four main divisions ranging from "reactionary" through "experimental," various sub-divisions become necessary.

At the reactionary and markedly conservative end of the scale the organization is subject-centered. History, geography, arithmetic, spelling, and similar fields are commonly scheduled by the clock, above the primary level at any rate. Often the work is departmentalized to permit each teacher to concentrate on his specialty.

In the less conservative and middle-of-the-road schools the curriculum frequently is organized on a correlated or fused

²¹ Despite many appreciable values, emergent planning may remain a rarity for an indeterminant period. Limited teacher preparation, the teacher shortage and turn-over, the desire for the "security" of more specific curriculum designs on the part of many school workers, and the sheer creative labor involved often contrive to limit its application to campus schools and economically favored suburban-type schools. In the writers' opinion this is an unfortunate but defensible conclusion at present, and should challenge leadership at all levels to make more creative teaching possible in more schools.

subject-centered basis. When one comes to the fused type, however, a variety of sub-divisions are involved. Some of these sub-types are: (a) core, (b) "integrated," (c) unified studies, (d) broad fields, and (e) subject-centered activity curriculum. Each of these is considered by its proponents to be an effective means for communicating information and skills to children and youth. Distinctions that may be made among the subject-centered types will be dealt with below.

Ranging from the middle-of-the-road through experimental are other types of curriculum organization which center around the experiences of the learner. Among these more liberal types are: (a) emergent, (b) "unplanned," (c) problem-centered, (d) centered on social functions, (e) activity, (f) self-selected, and (g) centered on improving human relations.

As indicated by the circle in the diagram at the right end of Level 7, any of these types of organization may be used by the school engaged in efforts aimed at bringing about social reconstruction, "social reconstruction" being a point of view rather than a kind of organization. The range of color in the Level 7 circle represents the various shades of educational opinion which may be held by reconstructionists.

The Verbal Jungle. A total of four major types of curriculum organization and twelve sub-types is shown in the diagram. This variety in terminology or nomenclature illustrates a problem which is present in any discussion of the curriculum and many other phases of education as well. This is the problem posed by pedaguese, the jargon of teachers—professors of education in particular.

In order coherently to comment on creative leadership choices in the selection of suitable curricular organization it seems necessary to attempt to define the terms used. They are defined not because the terminology is novel to the reader but because the meanings involved are interpreted in so many diverse ways by those who use them. There almost certainly will be disagreement over some of the simplified definitions proposed, and criticisms will be cheerfully accepted.

Type of curriculum organization	Proposed definition
<i>Correlated: subject-centered:</i>	Refers to the teaching of two subjects in <i>relationship</i> .
<i>Fused: subject-centered:</i>	Used to designate bringing together two or more subjects and teaching them in <i>combination</i> .
<i>Core:</i>	Particularly at the junior high school level, the organization which involves scheduling two or more class periods sequentially and assigning them to the same teacher for the time block thus created. (The arrows lateral to the term "core" in the color diagram are intended to suggest that the core may have some of the characteristics of those curricula at either extreme, depending upon the particular interpretation "core" is given in a particular school.
<i>"Integrated":</i>	Commonly means teaching content in such ways as to erase subject matter lines completely, thus using subject matter as a resource in a developing unit or project. Quotation marks are used because the writers believe this term is misleading. This opinion rests on the assumption that <i>children</i> rather than <i>subjects</i> are integrated. There can be an <i>integrating</i> but not an <i>integrated</i> curriculum.
<i>Unified studies:</i>	So similar to the fused curriculum as to be considered synonymous.

Broad fields:

A variation of fusion. Generally applied to the junior-senior high school levels. Refers to a combined or survey-type of organization. Combining civics, history, geography in the high school as "social studies" creates a "broad field."

Subject-centered activity curriculum:

Conceived by the teacher or dictated by the course of study, this involves the use of activities in projects to make learning meaningful. Often involves art and craft work, particularly in the social studies. Arrows lateral to this term in the diagram imply that the activity approach may be quite liberal or definitely conservative, depending upon the atmosphere of the school in which it is developed.

Experience curriculum:

A general term for a curriculum organization which is flexibly planned so that the experiences of children serve their needs and purposes in ways consistent with principles of human development. It presumably relates to the whole life of the child, not merely the happenings within the school.²²

Emergent:

A type of organization which acquires structure and substance through the processes of teacher-pupil planning.

²² This is congruent with Dewey's definition of experience as the continuous interaction of the living organism with its environment. Cf. his *Art as Experience* (New York, Minton, Balch and Co., 1934), p. 35.

Type of curriculum organization

Proposed definition

"Unplanned":

For practical purposes this may be identified as a poorly conceived emergent-experience curriculum. (The quotes suggest that this is a coined term which should be dropped from current usage.)

Problem-centered:

Organization developed around problems which suggest projects that promise to meet children's purposes and needs. Lacks clarity as to basic concepts.

Social functions:

Involves the organization of children's experiences so as to acquaint them cumulatively and functionally with such human activities as earning a living, maintaining health, choosing leaders, etc. It can be debated as to whether this is a *type* of organization or a *source* of experiences.

Self-selected:

An approach related to emergent planning, but with special emphasis on the uniqueness of each child. Involves the inherent assumption that the school environment will be rich, challenging the gifted child yet capable of serving the slow maturing.²³

Human relations:

This concept or organization is essentially an emergent approach biased by its aim to build better intergroup - intercultural understandings and adjustments.

²³ Cf. Willard Olson, *Child Development* (Boston, D. C. Heath and Co., 1949), pp. 325-350.

Activity:

Emphasizes the direct, first-hand participative approach which assumes that learning experiences are meaningful in direct proportion to the extent that children plan coöperatively with the teacher and learn by doing.

More than definitions, the preceding statements are also intended to serve as brief interpretations of what each type of curriculum organization connotes. Following the above journey through the verbal jungle it is doubtless superfluous to add that educational leadership faces a lively and complicated task in making appropriate coöperative decisions with the staff as to which organizational structure seems best suited to their school.

Effective participation in the process of determining what constitutes a good structure for the curriculum is one of the most significant contributions that administrators and supervisory consultants can make to educational progress in the district which employs them.

The Individual School and the Individual Teacher. The eighth and last level in Figure 11 is a profile of the curriculum theory which may characterize a given school and the individualistic theories of two teachers on its staff. For purposes of clarity these individual variations are confined to viewpoints of how subject matter should be presented. Equally diversified positions could be charted with regard to the matter of what constitutes good experiences: creative, aesthetic, and so on.

The profiles of the school and the two teachers are introduced to suggest that most human beings are inconsistent in their views as to what constitutes desirable curriculum practices.²⁴ The teacher may display a conservative bent in teaching science as a series of formal lessons in the text and later in the

²⁴ This tendency to accept inconsistent viewpoints was demonstrated by Robert Brower who used a questionnaire with student teachers in seven colleges of education. Cf. his "A Survey of the Opinions of 223 Elementary Student Teachers on Twenty-five Problems in Educational Theory" (unpublished Master's thesis, Northwestern University, Evanston, Illinois, 1951).

day use decidedly liberal procedures in building arithmetic concepts.

Phrased in another way, it may be said that probably no school would fall at the same point on a vertical line drawn from the top to the bottom of the color chart. The irregular black line linking certain Levels from top to bottom of the diagram is intended to indicate to the reader that the position of the "average" school on the continuum is the sum of its deviations.

A perceptive student of human relations in industry once commented that, "It is easier to deal with the 'average person' than a particular person in a particular situation."²⁵ No school in which the creative leader is likely to be employed is "average," nor does one ever find an "average" faculty. Therefore, the leader, in dealing with his unique situation, needs to recognize existing inconsistencies in theory and practice. It is from this point that he must move forward with courage and with faith in the conviction that the minds of teachers set free to work creatively can steadily improve curriculum designs.

If the present chapter fulfills its purpose it should help the reader at his present level of maturity to acquire new and clearer insights into the myriad of elements and interrelationships with which he deals in instructional leadership.

SUMMARY

Chapter Eight attempted, with the assistance of a diagram, to interpret five positions in curriculum theory: reactionary, conservative, middle-of-the-road, liberal, and experimental viewpoints.

The major portion of the chapter dealt with what each of the five positions implies for educational leaders as they work with children, with parents, and with their professional colleagues in deciding: (1) the purpose of the curriculum, (2) the philosophy which seems best to provide worthy goals, (3) the psy-

²⁵ F. J. Roethlisberger, "Efficiency and Cooperative Behavior," *Journal of Engineering Education*, December, 1949, p. 241.

chological approach which seems best to promote effective learning, (4) the question of who shall share in planning the curriculum, (5) the matter of the source or determinants of children's experiences, and (6) the type of curriculum organization that appears most likely to help the school attain its educational aims.

The interpretations given to the nature and meanings of the diagram attempted to portray the significance of the leader's decisions with regard to curriculum policy. However, what these choices should be was not spelled out. Such choices should be made as the products of group planning in each unique school environment. For should not administrators, consultants, teachers, children, and the community as a whole lay the foundations for guiding children and youth toward goals which American society seeks to share with them?

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CHAPTER NINE

LEADERSHIP IN PLANNING THE CREATIVELY DESIGNED CURRICULUM



IT IS one thing to theorize about the curriculum of the elementary or junior high school, quite another to deal with the practical question of content. One is reminded at this point of the advice of Dionysius the Elder who left behind him the 2400-year-old fragment, "Let thy speech be better than silence, or be silent." The question as to what experiences for children should be sponsored by the school is so complex and controversial as to encourage silence—to prompt one to leave these "unimportant details" to the local staff as did the Workshop Director in the grasshopper fable.¹

Not only is there a need for comprehensive planning of the curriculum, but the leader must be ready to meet each day the problem of *what* to teach, and *how* it should be organized in some sequential arrangement which is consistent with the school's purposes. Therefore, an examination of the matter is made here with the hope that those who disagree will be charitable.

¹ See p. 45ff.

WORKING WITH TEACHERS TO DETERMINE DESIRABLE CURRICULUM CONTENT

A basic belief that leadership is a process in which the entire staff shares has marked this book from the outset. It seems consistent, therefore, to reiterate here that the process of developing the creatively designed curriculum is a coöperative one.

Creative leadership at work with the staff in the field of curriculum involves a threefold opportunity: (1) in work with the staff as a whole or—in larger districts—with representatives of the whole, (2) in work with the individual teacher, which is usually the privilege of the principal or supervisory consultant, and (3) in work with small groups of teachers, as within a single grade or level or in the articulation of children's experiences from one level to the next.

Working with the Staff as a Whole. Perfect agreement among all members of a school staff with regard to what constitutes the "best" curriculum is probably an impossible achievement, but there is a process by which a group can move in the direction of such a desirable end. Chapters One and Four attempted to identify some of the procedures and problems involved in the coöperative group process. They are applied in the subsequent pages to the specific problem of curriculum development.

Understanding of the creatively designed curriculum is an emerging concept which comes partly from deliberate efforts to conceive of such an organization of children's experiences, and partly from the developing experiences of the staff at work with children. Leadership plays a vital part in helping teachers as they engage in a study of curriculum plans and organizations and as they work with children in their individual classrooms. Some of the leader's specific contributions will be presented and discussed later in the chapter.

In general, teachers who participate in designing the curriculum need to possess a working understanding of three broad areas of knowledge and their implications for methods, content, and the child's progress toward maturity. These three areas are

psychology, sociology, and philosophy. Psychology includes the principles of human behavior, the learning process, and the developmental patterns of social growth. Sociology involves more than a knowledge of human institutions; it embraces an appreciation of basic cultural patterns, community organization, and national designs. Philosophy is conceived as the construction of a systematic and coherent set of values, as Dewey once noted in his *Sources for a Science of Education*.

By long custom, educational leaders often have approached the problem of curriculum development from the abstract and theoretical side, attempting to get teachers to appreciate the philosophical, psychological, and sociological considerations before any effort was made to begin the construction of an actual curriculum. That this approach has been ineffectual is attested by the great amount of contradiction and misunderstanding that characterizes many curriculum practices today. Such confusion is due, at least in part, to a failure to understand that the experiences teachers have had daily in their classrooms, and the heavy hand of tradition, contribute more forcefully to their understanding than do more theoretical considerations. If leadership is to help the schools to pull free of the present quagmire of curriculum planning it is necessary to appreciate the vital role that daily experiences play in shaping the teachers' conceptions of a suitable organization of teaching and learning. One of the ways by which this may be accomplished is to provide them with *new* experiences which will support and lend meaning to their theoretical knowledge of good practices.

As administrators and consultants work with teachers in studying the issues and controversies suggested in Chapters Seven and Eight, they might simultaneously encourage active investigation of the following areas of concern which will prove to be more immediately helpful in giving guidance to the solution of the practical problems which teachers daily face:

- (1) A study of the actual community which the school serves.
(Olsen² has suggested the form and content of this type of local survey.)

² Edward G. Olsen, *et al.*, *School and Community* (New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1945). Chapter 3.

- (2) A study of the actual developmental patterns of the children served by the school. (Helpful suggestions for techniques and procedures will be found in *Helping Teachers Understand Children*.³)
- (3) A frontal attack on the many school problems teachers face in providing children with a desirable sequence of daily experiences: promotion problems, allocation of subject matter emphases, discipline, the use of teaching aids, and so on. These have immediate and important implications for curriculum development. (Chapters Ten through Thirteen will discuss these matters in greater detail.)

It cannot be emphasized too strongly that leadership must help each teacher on the school staff to mature professionally to a point where he can share in decisions concerning the over-all curriculum organization. The over-all nature of the program should be studied in company with efforts to meet the more specific problems of teachers, else the problems and issues reviewed in Chapters Seven and Eight become completely meaningless; that is, they fail to affect the daily lives of teachers and children in school.

In attempting to reach staff agreement in regard to the immediate question of what shall be taught, it is essential to keep in mind that the principles of group process discussed in Chapter Four are equally applicable. As shown in the diagram on the inside covers of this book, the "profile" of the school and individual teachers at Level 8 indicate that widely different viewpoints are held by staff members as to the place and importance of certain subject matters in the curriculum. Leadership needs to work with teachers to develop an atmosphere in which divergent ideas can be expressed, interpreted by their proponents, and reconciled insofar as possible through evaluation by the entire group.

There is the danger in following the above proposal that decisions affecting immediate practice may degenerate into mere opportunism—the making of "expedient" decisions with little or no concern as to whether they are consistent with the long-

³ American Council on Education, *Helping Teachers Understand Children* (Washington, D. C., The Council, 1945).

term goal of creating a curriculum which becomes more coherent with each passing year. Out of the participation and interpretation of the staff should come defensible decisions as to the *determinants* of children's experiences and the *type* of curriculum organization which is feasible for their particular school at a particular time. (Cf. Levels 6 and 7 in Figure 11.) There should also be agreements as to "next steps" the staff wishes to explore in improving present practices.⁴

Working with Individual Teachers. Assuming a reasonably sound curriculum policy has been evolved and accepted by the staff, one of the challenges to leadership (particularly in the principalship and small superintendency) is to help the individual teacher to operate intelligently within the curriculum framework established by the decisions of the staff. Unless the teacher is encouraged to teach in ways which promise to satisfy the purposes and needs of children there can be no challenge to leadership as it is conceived in this volume. An uncompromising course of study, which the classroom teacher is expected to follow slavishly, is totally inconsistent with the concept of a creatively designed curriculum, and would leave no place for creative work by the teacher, principal, or supervisory consultant.

An effective approach to guiding the individual teacher's growth involves helping him to acquire personal criteria for selecting the learning experiences which he and the children consider most desirable. This should transpire, of course, within the framework of the policies made and agreements reached by the staff as a whole. Part of the resistance to the notion that teachers should have a measure of freedom to develop their own classroom programs is related to the doubtful assumption that they would create chaos by doing as they pleased, without reference to any authority other than that inherent in their own decisions. *In the creatively designed curriculum it is assumed that basic policy and the major structure for children's experi-*

⁴ To avoid undue complication at this point reference to parent-community participation in curriculum planning is omitted. Cf. Chapter Six for this additional consideration.

ences will be determined by all teachers coöperatively, with the individual teacher encouraged to interpret these in terms of the needs and capacities of the particular children with whom he is working at a given time.

It should be conceded that the competent teacher is in the most strategic position to understand the needs of his children. However, since he invariably will interpret these needs more in terms of his personal set of values than in terms of group values, there are certain self-imposed controls which profitably may be called to his attention. The following may serve the teacher as a yardstick with which to gauge the appropriateness of the content of proposed learning experiences:

- (1) It is consistent with the objectives which have been developed coöperatively by the staff as a whole.
- (2) It is based realistically on the recognition of the cultural environment of the community in which each child is developing.⁵
- (3) It recognizes the individual differences existing among the children: their unique developmental nature and needs.⁶
- (4) It lends itself to methods consistent with effective learning.
(See below, p. 271ff.)
- (5) It promises to promote better understanding of the community by the child and, wherever possible, to encourage socially useful work, and to provide opportunities for first-hand experiences in the school-community environment.
- (6) It encourages the growth of active, positive social attitudes toward the needs and lacks in the child's environment (e.g., improved housing, conservation of human and natural resources).
- (7) It is practical in view of the limitations imposed by space, available supplies, or the time of the year.

⁵ For detailed information regarding the influence of the culture, cf. James S. Plant, *op. cit.*; D. G. Harding, *Personality and Cultural Milieu* (Syracuse, Syracuse University Press, 1948); D. Mandelbaum (ed.), *Selected Writings in Language Culture and Personality* (Berkeley, University of California Press, 1948); and James H. S. Bossard, *The Sociology of Child Development* (New York, Harper and Brothers, 1948).

⁶ Cf. Charlotte Buhler, *et al.*, *Childhood Problems and the Teacher* (New York, Henry Holt and Co., 1952), and Kenneth Eells, *et al.*, *Intelligence and Cultural Differences* (Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1951).

The reader is urged to extend this list to include other factors which should guide and control the teacher's and children's selection of learning experiences. The above list is presented to emphasize the fact that in the best conception of the creatively designed curriculum educational anarchy does not reign. Rather, the teacher's creative program development is shaped by personal values *and* cooperatively derived purposes which the faculty as a whole has accepted.

Since teachers are indisputably different in their values, in their competencies, and in their knowledge of children and the culture, leaders will need to work with each in ways which recognize of individuality. The *general* direction of curriculum planning receives its impetus from the staff's educational values. The individual teacher implements these values intelligently as he evolves, in coöperation with leadership, criteria consistent with the values of the staff as a whole. As the Association for Childhood Education noted a number of years ago:

. . . the thinking teacher must free herself from dependence on specific methods and devices by relating [her methods] to more inclusive principles in terms of which she can create specific procedures suited to the conditions that arise in her work. . . . Those who are responsible for a child at successive levels and the principal and supervisor who coördinate their efforts should concur with reference to their basic values and general purposes and should coöperate creatively and democratically in a joint task which cannot be achieved through didactic direction or uncoördinated effort.⁷

If mutual understanding and coöperation are lacking, it makes little difference whether the conception of the curriculum held by the staff is "liberal" or "conservative." In those schools which are the beneficiaries of good leadership, however, there is an intelligently conceived and efficiently executed curriculum which recognizes the individual variations in teachers and children.

Working with Small Groups of Teachers. There are at least two situations in which the leader will need to work with seg-

⁷ The Association for Childhood Education, *Curriculum Trends* (Washington, D. C., The Association, 1935), p. 15. (Pamphlet prepared by Laura Zirbes.)

ments of the total staff in the development of curriculum plans. In many instances, the school staff may be of such size that it is difficult, if not impossible, for the group to function effectively as a whole. When the total number of teachers exceeds 25 or 30, the mere fact of size can impede coöperation. Then it is not unusual to find the group dividing itself into more closely knit units, perhaps organized on the basis of grade levels or subject matter areas. Under other circumstances, even when the size of the group is not large, division into smaller groups on the basis of interest or grade level may be desirable in order to make more rapid progress on some specific aspects of matters concerning the larger group.

For instance, the total group may have succeeded in defining the basic principles of the curriculum, the total sequence of children's experiences throughout the entire school, and even the broad allocation of subject matter and content fields. However, the specific applications of these decisions can better be implemented by smaller groups composed of teachers more intimately acquainted with specific grade or maturation levels. Resource or learning units, written in some detail for particular levels, can be constructed better by a smaller "production" committee whose work ultimately is submitted to the whole group for acceptance.

Breaking up the unity of the entire staff, whether for reasons of size or special purposes, presents problems to leadership. It should be borne in mind, for instance, that the work of the smaller group must proceed within the general framework of agreement reached by the total group. Too narrow prescription of the smaller group's work often will discourage its creativity and restrict its productivity. Conversely, too vague an assignment, or an assignment which is too broad, will create a situation in which the small group exceeds the functions delegated to it and will bring about consequent conflicts and antagonisms. A function of leadership here is to provide the whole group with ample opportunity to clarify its main purposes, and to delegate subordinate responsibilities to committees with clearly defined purposes and duties. Some of the difficulties which may beset a committee divorced from the whole group can be

minimized by reference back to the parent body as needed for further clarification, for frequent reporting of the sub-group's progress, or for additional interpretation of the staff's policy which seems related to the work of the committee.

Emergent Learning Experiences: Foundation for the Creatively Designed Curriculum. While it is entirely possible for an intelligent, insightful staff to plan the general design of the curriculum, the actual learning experiences must emerge from the backgrounds of the children: their environmental influences, their stage of development, their interests, their motivation. It is inconceivable that these background elements can be fully anticipated or codified by any staff of teachers because the elements themselves are in a state of emergent change from day to day. Thus, the basic factors influencing the curriculum which operates in the lives of boys and girls will be the emergent learning experiences which evolve from the attempts of children and teacher coöperatively to select functional and meaningful content. "Content" in this context is somewhat more inclusive than the term "subject matter" as the latter term is generally used in school circles. "Content" includes subject matter, but it also includes experiences which build the desired attitudes and the values which good schools seek for maturing young citizens.

The fundamental responsibility of educational leadership is to work with teachers so as to help them become sensitive to the fact that there are many approaches to the creative organization of learning experiences:

- (1) A study of the children themselves helps to ascertain the kinds of learnings which can be profitably planned.
- (2) The environment itself is a source of "leads" for creative learning. What is occurring in the vicinity of the school that might lend itself to study? Are new buildings being constructed? Is there interest in a local election? Have there been any impressive or unusual weather conditions? What new pets might serve as a center of interest?⁸

⁸ For a suitable description of meaningful planning with children, cf. Gertrude Noar's pleasant book, *Freedom to Live and Learn* (Philadelphia, Franklin Publishing and Supply Co., 1948). Chapters V and VI deal with selecting and planning experiences.

- (3) Subject matter in *one* field may suggest work in *another*.
A group of children studying about Mexico may learn of climatic differences which suggest a consideration of climate in all parts of the world, or in their local community.
- (4) A barren, unattractive classroom may stimulate planning to create a more pleasant environment by decorating walls, making draperies, setting up a science table, or stocking a reading corner with books from the library or home.

The purpose of the above list is simply to suggest the kinds of sources from which one can obtain "leads" to interesting and educationally profitable learning experiences. If the activity stops at this point, or if the program in the classroom is merely a succession of such momentary interests, it will fail to produce a defensible curriculum organization. The "lead" is simply the starting point or initial step in the creation of an emerging curriculum. Once there is a "lead" to a good learning experience the teacher and children can spend time (which varies with the maturity of the latter) ascertaining (1) what the group already knows about the topic, (2) what the group would like to find out, and (3) how the children can best go about their study.

Under all circumstances, the able teacher accepts the responsibility for insuring that there will be substantial and significant learning as an outcome of emergent planning. When properly conceived the emergent approach brings more to, and demands more of, the children. One of the fundamental tests of any curriculum program is the degree to which it imparts information to each child. The unit, project, or experience is indefensible if it fails to make the world more understandable. The rapid accumulation of human knowledge demands that schools teach more rather than less. The good curriculum facilitates more and better skills for living.

Gertrude Noar gives 14 simple supplementary criteria which children can apply in moving through the three phases of planning mentioned above:

- (1) Will it be interesting to all of us?
- (2) Will it be useful now and later on . . . ?
- (3) Will we learn new things?
- (4) Will it be too difficult or too easy?

- (5) Is there something we can do about it now?
- (6) Will we have time for it?
- (7) Could we draw?
- (8) Could we write and give plays?
- (9) Will we be able to take trips? See movies? Hear radio programs? Make things? Make scrapbooks? Invite speakers? Interview people? Have bulletin boards?
- (10) Will there be reading material—book, newspapers, magazines, pamphlets, and can we get more?
- (11) Will there be opportunities to have discussions?
- (12) Will we be able to work in committees?
- (13) Will we be able to make and hear reports?
- (14) Will it cost anything?⁹

The effective leader should be able to guide the staff in approaching work in the context of teacher-pupil planning and evaluation which this simple list suggests.¹⁰

THE NATURE OF LEARNING AND THE CURRICULUM

During the past 25 or 35 years new vistas, but partially explored, have been opened up by developing research and experimentation with respect to the learning process. Modern texts in educational psychology are indispensable sources of information in this area. Together with the ever-expanding fields of child and adolescent development such writings constitute one of the main avenues of inquiry which teachers should follow.¹¹ It seems clear that, if the leader is to contribute significantly to creative curriculum designing and share effectively in making appropriate value-judgments as to the "good" curriculum, he will need to acquire and constantly replenish knowledge of the learning process and child development.

⁹ *Ibid.*, pp. 30-31.

¹⁰ A valuable resource for helping teachers and leaders to understand the rich variety of planning situations is Alice Miel and associates, *Cooperative Procedures in Learning* (New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1952).

¹¹ A representative text is Charles E. Skinner (ed.), *Educational Psychology*, Third edition (New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1951).

The Leader's Knowledge of the Learning Process. Instead of attempting an exhaustive review of the literature of educational psychology, the writers propose that the following generalizations be made the basis of a working understanding of the creatively designed curriculum. Unless considerable misinterpretation of the evidence has been made, no one can hope to provide children with an effective learning experience by ignoring the inner "private worlds" which determine personality and behavior.

Every experience is a "learning experience." The nervous system of the child is, to a significant extent, the product of the experiences which have shaped his "inner world." Whatever happens to him causes a change in its structure and operation. The child *learns* whether he is *taught* or not. This suggests, since many learning situations cannot be planned in advance, that the perceptive leader will urge the staff's acceptance of a broad interpretation of the meaning of the term "curriculum."

Learning is influenced by many qualities, factors, and conditions. What is learned is often determined by forces lying outside the teaching situation: the background of the learner, his mental equipment, the body of meanings and insights he has developed, practice, success or failure in similar learning situations, readiness, physical health, emotional stability, and so forth. The range and permutations in these variables are almost infinite. This suggests that to disregard individual differences in the learner will impair the effectiveness of teaching.

Learning is a personal and creative process. The patterns, processes, and procedures by which one learns will vary from individual to individual. A uniform curriculum, providing the same content for all, can only result in great variations in the effectiveness of its use with individuals. That is, standardized teaching is likely to suit no one since no boy or girl is completely standardized.

Wholesome learning is active and integrative. If the structure of personality is the product of experience, and all parts of the child's personal "inner world" operate as a unified whole, it follows that the best learning is that which involves the

largest proportion of the human organism. Through active learning the child has the greatest chance to strengthen the unification of the structure and produce a better integration of function. This points to the conclusion that the curriculum should be planned so as to aid this process. Thus, the passive, "question and answer" type of learning may be conceived as less educative than active "answer finding."

Learning is social. Human beings are the product of the society in which they share membership; they gain their very humanness from association with others. Learning in isolation from others reduces the opportunity to mature. The "best" curriculum is one in which the individual has rich opportunities to learn to achieve his fullest potential in a stimulating social setting.¹²

Even a partial list of generalizations such as those above serves to underscore the conclusion that the curriculum which will prove most beneficial to learners is one in which many of the traditionally accepted techniques of mental training are discarded; conceptions based on more recent experimental evidence point up that children learn in many ways other than through practice or drill. At the same time a creative administrative leader should recognize the need to avoid thrusting new practices upon a staff so abruptly as to wreck the teacher's confidence in his competence. It cannot be emphasized too strongly that *understanding* of the implications of educational psychology for teaching and *application* of these principles do not necessarily need to proceed at the same rate of speed. It is probably desirable for knowledge to precede practice by a considerable distance. Teachers require time to develop methods and procedures. Even when they have an *intellectual* grasp of the new education, staff members may need a considerable period in which to create practical applications.

Appraising Curriculum Planning Which Encourages Wholesome Learning. As teachers attempt to put into practice their

¹² Two excellent sources for generalizations about learning are: Earl C. Kelley and Marie I. Rasey, *Education and the Nature of Man* (New York, Harper and Brothers, 1952), and James L. Mursell, *Successful Teaching* (New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1946).

knowledge of what constitutes a good learning experience, it is desirable for leaders to have some basis on which to help the teacher determine the adequacy of his plans. The following are suggested as items to check as the teacher and educational leader coöperatively appraise the teacher's efforts:

- The experiences are planned coöperatively by teacher and children.
- The teacher appraises the work of the classroom group in the light of goals accepted by the staff and presumably developed coöperatively.
- Children evaluate group and individual progress in view of their own criteria.
- Classroom experiences are guided by the teacher so as to foster children's growth toward an understanding of the social environment and its improvement in the interest and welfare of all: sharing, taking turns, and encouraging fair play.
- Experiences of children encourage freedom and responsibility and discourage the abuse of freedom.¹³ Initiative as promoted in a democratic atmosphere is prized.¹⁴
- The curriculum approximates real living at the child's level of maturity as distinct from subject matter pre-selected and pre-organized by adults alone. The individual organizes *his own* subject matter cumulatively and functionally and, while he does not merely "do as he pleases," there is recognition of the importance of his interests and purposes. Learning is individualized.
- There is freedom and opportunity for the child to inquire critically and to find creative solutions to problems at his level.
- There is concern for the child's total environment.
- Practice and drill are subordinate to meanings and kept in abeyance until the reasons for practice are understood and accepted by the child.

¹³ George A. Coe, *Law and Freedom in the School* (Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1924). Coe's book is an early classic in the field.

¹⁴ Cf. Ronald Lippitt, "An Experimental Study of Effects of Democratic and Authoritarian Group Atmospheres," *University of Iowa Studies in Child Welfare*, 16:3, 1940.

—There is evidence that children are voluntarily making use of what they have learned.

The educational leader has many opportunities to help the individual teacher see more clearly the direction in which his work with children should go. In group curriculum conferences, in individual consultations with the teacher, and as he works intimately with the teacher in the classroom, these opportunities present themselves.

A Word on Child Development. It is quite apparent to most educational workers, particularly perceptive teachers, that child development is closely related to the learning process. It is difficult at times for students in the field to distinguish between the two. It is obvious that the two fields come into intimate relationship when the question of "pacing" is considered. When shall certain experiences be provided? Study of child development sheds light on and gives substance to educational psychology at this point. For example, Gesell shows that a grasp of historical sequence does not develop until a child has achieved approximately the age of ten.¹⁵ Educational psychology provides clues concerning the conditions which facilitate learning; child development indicates *when* that learning will be most profitable.

The "child development approach" proposes that the child himself, in his environmental setting, be the source of information as to what is best for him to experience in school. Thus administrative leadership encourages teachers to understand such concepts as *growth* (the processes of physical change), the central tendency of growth for which Willard Olson has minted the term *organismic age*,¹⁶ and *maturity*, "a child's total state of readiness for an activity under discussion."¹⁷

For some time, but especially during the last 10 or 15 years, educationally alive schools and their leadership have been influenced by what a growing body of knowledge pertaining to

¹⁵ Arnold Gesell and Frances L. Ilg, *The Child From Five to Ten* (New York, Harper and Brothers, 1946), pp. 438-440.

¹⁶ Willard Olson, *Child Development* (Boston, D. C. Heath and Co., 1949), p. 40.

¹⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 4.

child development is suggesting for curriculum improvement. Attention has to an increasing extent been directed toward ways in which the school should be adapted to the child rather than expecting the child to adjust to the school. This has an important bearing on curriculum planning with the staff.

To state the situation in vastly oversimplified form, workers in the field of child development have demonstrated the complex nature of growth, which is seen as active, continuous, selective, and individual.¹⁸ The influence of the social units of which the child is a part have been stressed: family, school, neighborhood, and community.¹⁹ The interrelationships between the environment and personal endowment or native capacity,²⁰ the environment and emotional elements,²¹ and mental and physical factors likewise have been emphasized.²²

Willard Olson in his *Child Development*²³ devotes an excellent chapter to concepts of child development as they pertain to curriculum and methods; this chapter draws together in convenient form for the educational leader some principles and practices which will strengthen his work in guiding intelligent curriculum planning.

CURRICULUM TRENDS IN SUBJECT MATTER FIELDS

It seems desirable at this point to recognize the need of many administrative and supervisory leaders for some type of digest of current curriculum trends in the various areas in which they

¹⁸ American Council on Education, *Helping Teachers Understand Children* (Washington, D. C., The Council, 1945).

¹⁹ Ronald Lippitt and R. K. White, "The 'Social Climate' of Children's Groups," in R. Barker, J. Kounin, and H. Wright, *Child Behavior and Development* (New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1943).

²⁰ National Society for the Study of Education, *Intelligence: Its Nature and Nurture*, XXXIXth Yearbook (Bloomington, The Society, 1940).

²¹ K. B. Clark and M. K. Clark, "The Development of Consciousness of Self and the Emergence of Racial Identification in Negro Pre-school Children," *Journal of Social Psychology*, 10:591-599, 1939.

²² F. Alexander and T. French, *Studies in Psychosomatic Medicine* (New York, The Ronald Press, 1948).

²³ *Op. cit.* Cf. Chapter XII.

may wish to develop further competence. To this end the literature of the elementary and junior high school curriculum for the past two decades has been reviewed in an effort to draw together some succinct, general statements regarding the direction taken in the several fields: communication skills or language arts, the social studies, elementary science, and related work in art, music, and physical education.²⁴

General Trends. In general, curriculum changes have tended to recognize the need for children's living in the elementary school to become more meaningful through greater unification of learning. In other words, there is a strong tendency to recognize the need for unity and relationship among various sources of children's learning experiences and a trend away from rigid, separate subject-line divisions. As has been noted above, the impact and implications of the culture, contributions from other disciplines, keener insights into learning theories, growing awareness of the need for children to learn by example and practice rather than by precept and exhortation, have left their impress on curriculum structure and school living.

Because of the need for brevity in communicating the nature of general curriculum thinking, an effort is made once again to compress considerable meaning into a diagram. Figure 13 is presented to summarize some of the forces and elements which may be considered as influences upon specific curriculum practices. Here the effort is made to show visually that the desirable school program is being permeated by the demands and needs for successful living in American culture (Column I), and by the body of professional knowledge suggesting the components of the child's successful progress toward personal adequacy (Column II), and that the school's design for children's experiences is an outgrowth of (but integral with) those curricular

²⁴ Among the more than 50 writers whose books and articles were scanned are: Hollis Caswell, Pickens Harris, Henry Harap, William Ragan, Roma Gans, Laura Zirbes, Harold Rugg, A. W. Foshay, L. W. Harding, Paul Hanna, Paul Witty, Murray and Dorris Lee, B. O. Smith, J. Harlan Shores, Edward Krug, Nelson Bossing, Harold Alberty, William Featherstone, L. Thomas Hopkins, Roland Faunce, Henry Morrison, George Counts, Lois C. Mossman, John L. Childs, Robert Havighurst, Willard Olson, and Florence Stratemeyer.

experiences of the child which will help him contribute to the culture (Column III).

The blocklike, unitary structure of the emerging program is

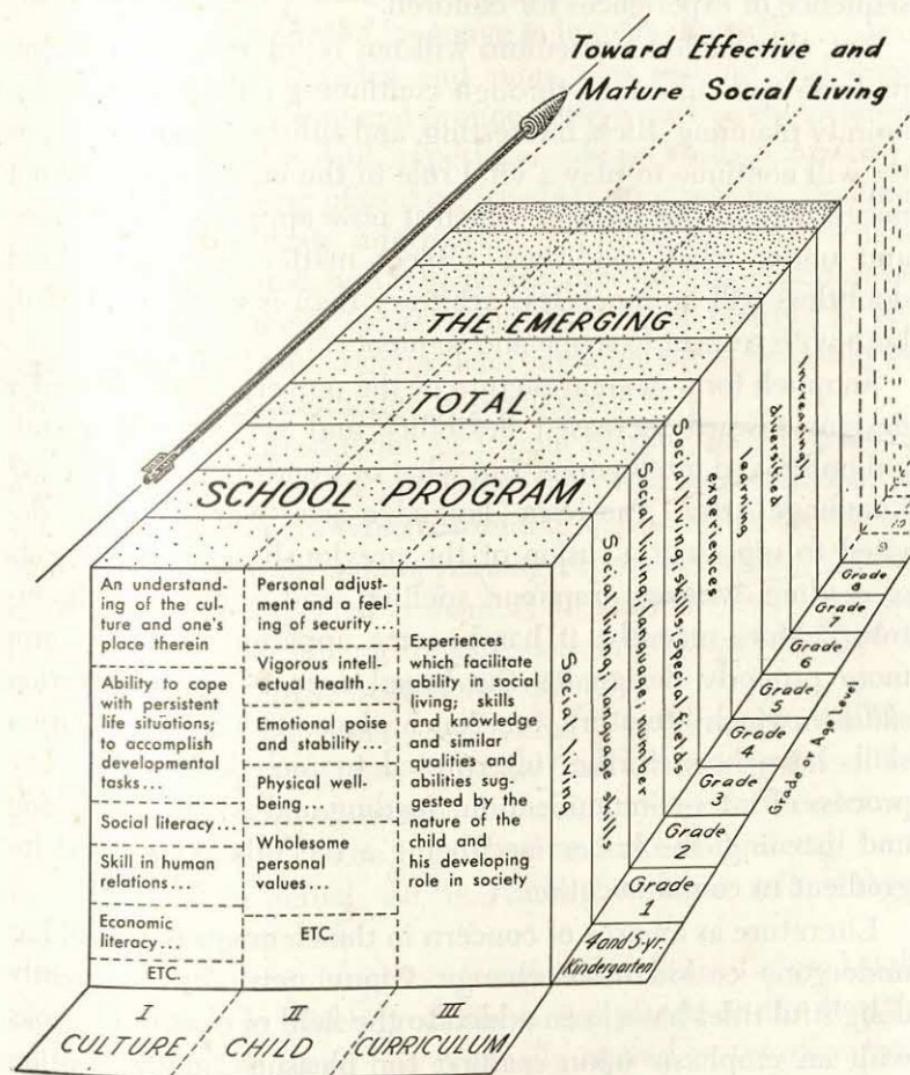


FIG. 13. The culture and the child in relation to the curriculum and grade placement of learning experiences.

meant to symbolize the one-piece quality of learning experiences in good schools. While grade levels remain discernible and subject matter divisions are specified in general terms, both writings and practice in the curriculum realm indicate that they

are becoming less and less distinct. Eventually, then, all lines may well vanish, leaving the schools with a program in which professional knowledge and sound values will yield a unifying sequence of experiences for children.

Yet, this unified curriculum will not be planless. It will find its form and substance through continuing child-teacher-community planning. Rich, interesting, and *substantial* subject matter will continue to play a vital role in the curriculum, but not necessarily in the *form* in which it now appears. When, how, and under what conditions subject matter will be utilized doubtless will be much less arbitrary than is usual at present, both with respect to scope and sequence.

So much for a general picture of the movement of curricular designs toward increased flexibility and reliance upon staff judgment and intelligence. But what of trends in content areas?

Language Arts. The term "language arts" was originally devised to represent a fusion of the previously isolated subjects of reading, writing, grammar, spelling, and, sometimes, literature.²⁵ More recently, it has become apparent that the term more properly designates the broad area of *communication skills* in which literature, too, has a place. The communication skills have been further interpreted to include the four-way process of inter-communication: reading and writing, speaking and listening, the last named being a recently recognized ingredient in communication.

Literature as an area of concern in the elementary school has undergone considerable change. Many new and frequently delightful titles have been added to the field of children's books with an emphasis upon reading for pleasure and recreation rather than as a means of improving reading skills. Bibliotherapy, the use of literature as a weapon for attacking per-

²⁵ Several current books present the increasing recognition accorded newer language practices: Ruth G. Strickland, *The Language Arts in the Elementary School* (Boston, D. C. Heath and Co., 1951); Mildred A. Dawson, *Teaching Language in the Grades* (New York, World Book Co., 1951); National Council of Teachers of English, *The English Language Arts* (New York, Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1952).

sonality problems and flaws, also merits mention as a rather recent development.²⁶

Yet to be given the consideration that is its due in the language arts area is the field of general semantics which concerns itself with the influence of language in human affairs.²⁷

Reading. Two decades and more ago reading was concerned with recognizing and pronouncing words on the printed page, with phonetic drill, repetition, phrase drills. Currently, greater stress is being placed on "reading for a reason," reading for ideas and to locate information. Phonetic emphasis is less common, less isolated, and is generally preceded by experiences which build readiness for reading. The art of reading is accepted as a social tool, a natural accompaniment to activities in which children are motivated to participate.²⁸

As a rule the introduction of formal reading in pre-primers during the first weeks of grade one has been superseded by a variety of experiences which stimulate children to talk freely, and to participate in making reading experience charts. Many children are not expected to read at all until the later months of the year, and, in some instances, even later, depending upon the individuality of the beginning reader.²⁹

Instead of reading being considered a *content* area of the curriculum, to be taught in isolation from every other activity in the school, it is now conceived of as a tool for further learning, as a means to a more functional end. As such, it can best be developed in actual use, in reading to learn rather than merely learning to read.

Writing. Writing long was associated with the isolated skill of penmanship, in which great stress was placed on the beauty of the script. The trend has gradually moved in the direction of conceiving it as a means of recording one's thoughts on paper in which the mechanical aspect of penmanship is important for

²⁶ Cf. Bess P. Adams, *About Books and Children* (New York, Henry Holt and Co., 1953), pp. 101-114.

²⁷ Cf. Irving J. Lee, *Language Habits in Human Affairs* (New York, Harper and Brothers, 1941), pp. xiii-xxvii in the preface.

²⁸ Cf. Strickland, *op. cit.*, Chapter XIII.

²⁹ For elaboration, cf. Dawson, *op. cit.*, p. 20ff.

clarity, but no longer the most important consideration. While legibility, uniform spacing, slant, and size of letters represent the basic guides for good handwriting, it is not now recommended that these be achieved at heavy cost to the quality of thought the learner attempts to express. Writing is accepted as a natural concomitant to reading: one learns to read so that he can understand what someone else has written; one learns to write so that he may express thoughts that others will be interested in reading.³⁰

Areas which once had reserved for them a specific place in the school day have now tended to become more closely identified with writing, and vice versa. Spelling, handwriting as such, grammar, and punctuation are now seen as integral aspects of writing. As one writes he learns better how to spell, to use proper grammatical form and appropriate punctuation.³¹

Speaking. In the past speaking often was not even recognized in the process of planning or revising the curriculum. Children were expected to answer questions asked by the teacher and otherwise remain silent until addressed. As the needs of modern democratic living were fully understood, it was seen that oral communication is one of the more vitally needed skills. The modern curriculum is concerned with providing children with numerous natural opportunities to practice this skill in situations which, for instance, involve co-operative planning or evaluation of proposed or completed activities. The present-day teacher is critically aware of the fact that much of his information and understanding of the children he attempts to teach may be gained only through the encouragement of oral communication among children and between them and himself.

Listening. For years uncounted the school was accepted as a listening place. The form and nature of the typical school in

³⁰ Suggested for additional reading: Alvina T. Burrows, *et al.*, *They All Want to Write* (Revised edition, New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1952). Cf. Chapters I and VII. Also, cf. Marian Nesbitt, *A Public School for Tomorrow* (New York, Harper and Brothers, 1953), Chapter IV.

³¹ For one of the best illustrations of the modern approach to teaching communication, cf. Rudolph Flesch and A. H. Lass, *The Way to Write* (New York, Harper and Brothers, 1947).

which "lessons were heard" by the teacher made it so. Rarely in the past did teachers go beyond the assumption that, if children seemed to attend to what was said, they were "listening." Recent advances in the field of semantics have revealed the error of this assumption. One indisputably "hears with his *experiences*," if one accepts in the definition of "hearing" the process of interpreting the meaning of what has been said. Currently, schools are attempting to include in their programs some concern for listening in the sense that guidance is given in assisting children to learn how to understand what another has spoken, whether it be the teacher or another learner.³²

Creative dramatics. As a means of integrating all of the verbal expressive arts, schools have discovered that one extremely successful and profitable activity is the encouragement of children to enact their developing ideas in dramatic form. All of the communication skills may become deeply involved in the process, in addition to many other desirable attributes of dramatic expression: the opportunity to create, the social stimulation of group activities, functional use of the graphic arts and music, and so on. In many ways, creative dramatics represent one of the most promising possibilities of the communication skills for enriched living.³³

Number. The movement of curriculum change with respect to developing number concepts involves a shift from learning *about* arithmetic to *using* such concepts in real life. Computation, as the mechanical manipulation of numbers for their own sake, is being abandoned in favor of the development of meaning, number relationships, and more rational concepts of the number system. While accurate computation is still held to be an indispensable part of the arithmetic program, greater stress is being placed on the learning of the number skills in computation of actual problems which face children.³⁴

³² Cf. Dawson, *op. cit.*, pp. 123-134.

³³ Cf. Nesbitt, *op. cit.*, pp. 44-45; 59ff.

³⁴ The reader is referred to Lowry W. Harding, *Functional Arithmetic* (Dubuque, Iowa, F. C. Brown Company, 1952); the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, *The Learning of Mathematics*. XXIst Yearbook (Washington, D. C., The Council, 1953); P. L. Spencer and Marguerite Brydegaard, *Building Mathematical Concepts in the Elementary School* (New York,

Elementary School Science. In spite of the fact that children today face the necessity of living in a world which has in many ways been remade by scientific and technological discoveries and developments, children's experiences in elementary schools—and even in junior high schools—often have reflected scant heed to this area of knowledge. In recognition of this omission new programs are being designed in which science as a field of inquiry provides opportunities for children to understand the physical world—a world which is *near* to and grippingly *interesting* to the young child and pre-adolescent alike. While elementary school science has been recognized rather widely as a field with first-rate potential learning experiences for children, a field which quickens interest and motivates children to learn eagerly, a more subtle point is becoming evident. Science is peculiarly suited to developing an understanding of and ability to use the "method of intelligence" which the scientific method of inquiry implies. As Childs has noted:

When we undertake to introduce a child to science, we undertake to introduce him not simply to certain aspects of organized science, but, above all, to a controlled method of human inquiry.³⁵

According to Childs, intelligently designed explorations of science help the child to develop resistance to the anti-scientific pressures which are exerted on all areas of his living: high pressure salesmanship, subtle advertising, spurious political argument, and autocratic ecclesiastical domination.³⁶

Social Studies. There are still a goodly number of programs at the elementary and junior high school level which conceive of the *social studies* as consisting of geography, history, civics, and fragments of the other *social sciences*. This subject emphasis is discernible regardless of whether the content is taught sepa-

Henry Holt and Co., 1952); C. N. Stokes, *Teaching the Meanings of Arithmetic* (New York, Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1951); and J. A. Hickerson, *Guiding Children's Arithmetic Experiences* (New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1952).

³⁵ John L. Childs, "The Morality of Science and the Values of Democracy," *Science Education*, 33:263, October, 1949.

³⁶ A timely treatment of the role of elementary science is presented in The Department of Elementary School Principals' XXXIIth Yearbook, *Science for Today's Children* (Washington, D. C., The Department, 1953). Especially, cf. Chapters I and II.

rately or in a fused program. The main purpose served is that of preserving and transmitting the cultural heritage. While many writers in the field continue to recognize the social studies as ". . . those subjects selected for study from the social sciences . . . including history, geography, civics, and current affairs,"³⁷ the trend is less toward passing along logically organized information to children and more toward an attempt to develop *socially competent* children. Social education involves more than information. It includes promoting social sensitivity, increasing social literacy, and changing behavior in ways consistent with school-community values. The test of the success of the newer emphases in social studies teaching is found *both* in what children know and understand about their culture, and in the socially desirable changes wrought in their behavior as a result of a high quality of school living.³⁸

Creative Expression in Art and Music. Still frequently found in practice is the approach to art as a formalized activity represented by such products as identically colored pumpkins at Hallowe'en, cut-paper Santas in December, or folded construction paper baskets to hold candy eggs at Easter-time. Despite the persistence with which patterned art work has lingered in the classroom, there is an overwhelming movement from art-through-imitation to art-through-self-expression; from formal art skills to stimulating a sense and awareness of beauty that fosters feeling and expression. It is considered less important for children to be able to reproduce reality with photographic precision than to *create* through individual expression one's concept and impression of that reality. Also, what art does for the individual child in the way of personal, artistic, and psychological satisfaction is becoming widely accepted.³⁹

In music there is a trend, analogous to that in art, away from

³⁷ Maurice P. Moffatt and Hazel W. Howell, *Elementary Social Studies Instruction* (New York, Longmans, Green and Co., 1952), p. 10.

³⁸ A very good general reference in the field of the social studies is *Social Studies for Children in a Democracy* by John U. Michaelis. Cf. Chapter bibliography.

³⁹ See, for example, Paula Elkish, "The Emotional Significance of Children's Art Work," *Childhood Education*, 23:236-241, 1947; Rose H. Alschuler and La Berta Hattwick, *Painting and Personality* (Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1947), 2 volumes.

mere mastery of techniques and the memorization of keys and signatures to an appreciation of and interest in good music, including ability to reproduce for one's own enjoyment. Music is viewed less as an accomplishment for display and more as a channel for creative expression. It is conceived less as a series of exercises to be performed and more as a pleasant experience involving experimentation with sounds and musical instruments.⁴⁰

Both art and music, without losing their identity as significant fields of endeavor, also are beginning more widely to make contributions to such fields as social studies, elementary science, or creative dramatics. The contributions of music and art have served to make learning in other fields more meaningful.

Physical Education. Physical education has already gone through two distinct phases and seems to be emerging into a third and most promising development. Earlier, stress was placed on calisthenics and body-building activities. Later on, preparation for competitive sports was common, especially at the junior high school level and above. Last to be introduced was the emphasis on mental and physical health as one and inseparable, to be sought through dance forms, recreational sports, free play, and simple, less competitive team and group activities. The importance of social development as an integral part of physical development is now well established, as are the need to develop skills in teamwork and the need for all children to find satisfaction and recreation through physical education. As man is freed by industrialization to enjoy greater leisure in relation to his working time, physical education programs have begun to recognize the desirability of providing him with skills and abilities to participate profitably and as a well-developed human being in a great variety of recreational activities.

⁴⁰ Cf. Satis N. Coleman, *Creative Music for Children* (New York, G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1936) and James L. Mursell, *Education for Musical Growth* (Boston, Ginn and Company, 1948).

SUMMARY

Everyone in a position of leadership responsibility faces the question of how best to implement curriculum theory through coöperative staff planning of good classroom programs. The creative leader works on several fronts to help teachers lend meaning in school and classroom to curriculum theory. These include work with individual teachers, with small groups, and with the staff as a whole. Chapter Nine concerned itself with the leader's role in each of these situations. Particular attention was given to his efforts to stimulate and appraise flexible and emergent teaching marked by pupil-teacher planning rather than pre-planned subject matter.

The last section of the chapter endeavored to diagram how the culture, the child, and the curriculum are related in the emerging school program, and suggested, in several subject matter areas, trends with which leadership should be familiar.

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~ II ~

*Creative Leadership in Action
in the
Improvement of School Living*



CHAPTER TEN

A DEVELOPMENTAL APPROACH TO SCHOOL ORGANIZATION



THE quality of leadership may be judged by the extent of the educationally desirable changes which it has been able to bring about over a period of years in coöperation with parents, teachers, and children. Change for its own sake is, of course, not necessarily a virtue. And there is always the danger that leadership will push too many changes too fast. Indeed, "there are virtues which become crimes by exaggeration," as Dumas long ago pointed out.¹ In American education during the past century, however, there is little to indicate that changes in practice have over-reached themselves—that educational change has become a crime by exaggeration.

In the present and in several subsequent chapters examination is made of potential improvements which are long over-due in some elementary and junior high schools with regard to school organization: grouping children, improving classroom structure, reporting pupil progress, promotion policies, and the use of resources, services, and materials of instruction.

THE CHANGING PURPOSES OF GROUPING PLANS

Since the inception of schools as a means of providing the

¹ In *The Count of Monte Cristo*, Chapter 90 (many editions).

young with systematic instruction, some form of grouping the learners has been used. Even in the time-honored one-room school the teacher invariably used some means of separating the advanced learners from the more immature. During nearly one hundred years of mild experimentation several different forms of grouping have been devised.

The Pre-Grouping Era. In the earliest form of school organization, the one-room school, it was not only natural but necessary to depend considerably on individualized instruction. The range of ability among children of widely varying ages and maturity made any kind of grouping, in the modern sense of the term,² difficult if not impossible. Also, classes were sometimes small enough to make any further sub-grouping needless. In the declining years of the nineteenth century, however, grouping of children became an apparent necessity. Growing enrollments made classes too large for teachers to continue the semi-tutorial program of the one-room school with mixed age groups. It probably seemed natural to make the split one that separated the younger and older children. When the two-room school required further sub-grouping, again the division was doubtless impelled by considerations of age and maturity—the breakdown of groups into chronological ages and physical sizes that appeared comparable. Thus was born the graded school, a convenient apportioning of enrollment in terms of chronological age. It was a short step from these early beginnings to the present common organization of children clustered in grades according to their ages.

Grade Grouping. Grouping by grade levels was introduced with the logical purpose of keeping children with the chronological age mates with whom they entered the school. If it could have been developed successfully it is likely that schools would not now face so many perplexing problems of organization. But, inextricably correlated with age is the matter of achievement. While it is not true that there is a markedly high correlation between age and achievement, it was always sufficiently

² "Grouping" in one-room schools and, even earlier, in Dame Schools of the colonial era existed in one sense. Very small groups sometimes read together or chanted memorized lessons while others worked at slates.

high to convince early schoolmen that there should be pronounced differentiation in subject matter among the various age levels. Especially in the light of the limited nineteenth century knowledge of the nature and process of learning, the conclusion appeared eminently defensible. Thus, sequential organization of subject matter by grade levels was adopted, with the simplest material assigned to the earliest age levels. Complexity of content increased as the child advanced through school.

The factor of individual differences among children immediately began to make itself felt in the graded school. The inevitable result was a measure of acceleration ("skipping" of grades) for the academically gifted and a marked retardation of the slow learners. During the period 1900-1925, for instance, it was common for 25 per cent to 50 per cent of the children to have repeated one or more grades by the time they had reached grade 8.

Although the development of the graded school in America was partly a grass-roots movement influenced by local considerations, the *idea* was by no means new in the last quarter of the past century. Jean Baptiste de la Salle, founder of the lay Catholic teaching order of the Christian Brethren, interpreted the grouping of children in his *Conduct of Christian Schools*, published in the early eighteenth century. Also, Andrew Bell and Joseph Lancaster grouped children under monitors in the so-called Lancastrian, or monitorial, schools of the early nineteenth century. Their plan was adapted and used especially in certain eastern American urban schools well over a century ago.³

Ability Grouping. The patent inability of some children to meet the standards set by the graded school, and the apparent ease with which other children mastered the material and then proceeded to squander their time in class, finally led to widespread study of ways in which to cope with individual differences. During the 1920's, instead of varying the demands upon

³ F. J. Reigart, *The Lancastrian System of Instruction in the Schools of New York City* (New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1916). Cf. Chapter IV.

individual children so that expectations of each would be commensurate with his ability, efforts were made to reduce the spread of ability and to group together children of like abilities. This attempt was first identified by the term "homogeneous grouping," on the false assumption that it is possible to bring together children of approximately comparable intellectual ability.

A number of elaborate plans were devised and several types of school organization stemmed from this assumption. Scores on standardized achievement and intelligence tests were most frequently used as a means of distinguishing among the abilities of children, with the standard score of the whole test generally being used as a basis for ascertaining the grade placement of the child. It was not until the early 1930's that the basic error in the assumption of homogeneity was made clear by several doctoral studies aimed at discovering the truth or falsity of this approach to grouping.⁴ By the end of the 1930's the evidence clearly pointed to the impossibility of grouping children fairly and accurately according to generalized abilities. By then, unfortunately, the structure of school organization in many districts had hardened into acceptance of ability grouping and a consequent reluctance to change.

Social Maturity Grouping. Within the last decade or two a promising conception of grouping has arisen in the literature, and here and there in practice, which has as its purpose the creation of a "well-balanced" group which can work effectively under the guidance of the teacher. Through the use of sociometric scores, intelligence tests, achievement levels, measurement of physical maturity, and teachers' pooled judgment, children have been selected to work together in groups which are more nearly comparable with respect to total social and physical development. This "social maturity" approach is less an effort to bring together children of like *academic* ability than it is an attempt to provide children with opportunities to learn in a

⁴ Cf. particularly, Marvin Y. Burr, *A Study of Homogeneous Grouping in Terms of Individual Variations and the Teaching Problem* (New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1931), and Parl West, *A Study of Ability Grouping in the Elementary School* (New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1933).

group situation which is congenial to their development: challenging to the able child, yet not frustrating to his less mature companions. It is assumed that children will learn best when their work is carried on with members of their natural peer-groups. The superiority of social maturity to intellectual ability as an index to grouping lies partly in the effect derived from its requirement that the intelligence and professionally mature judgment of teachers be applied to a continuing study of children.

Interest-Activity Grouping for Young Adolescents. In elementary and junior high schools of middle and large size (i.e., 400 or more pupils) provision has been made for groups of children with special interests and abilities to convene at the same time to share in special activities reflecting mutual interests. Musical organizations such as band, orchestra, or glee club, athletic teams, hobby groups, the school magazine staff, and other centers of activity select their membership on the basis of interest and, partially, of ability. In these activities children with similar enthusiasms and talents have an opportunity to work together to satisfy interests and increase their abilities.

While such student activities have been a feature of good junior high schools for many years, a rather recent *organizational* feature is that of scheduling the academic programs of the participants so that these young people are not "pulled out" of their regular classroom experiences one or more times each week. For example, in a semi-departmentalized or core type of program one may find all or most of the band or orchestra members in the same academic classes. Thus, it is possible to schedule rehearsals when all of the fledgling musicians have a free period in their daily programs. In junior high schools where special activities are recognized in planning the individual child's schedule, many administrators have reorganized the school program so that "special" activities may be included in the regular school day.

In the organizational plans for children mentioned above a variety of purposes are revealed. Grade grouping was introduced as a means of handling more *conveniently* the growing number of children in school. It also was designed to help the

teacher to deal with the wide range of individual differences by limiting the age spread of the one-room school.

When it was apparent that great individual differences persisted even within a group of children of about the same age, teachers began to experiment with "homogeneous" groups. This ability grouping failed to provide a panacea because there was no general or single criterion, such as achievement test scores, that would fit all children and because ability grouping (by stigmatizing slow maturing children) ignored certain human values. Social maturity grouping, with its stress on "well-balanced" combinations of children in each classroom, seeks to recognize individuality by *enrichment* of study programs for the gifted child rather than by *segregation* or *acceleration*. Special emphasis is placed on teacher-pupil planning of group learning experiences that also are suited to the non-academic child. Special interest-activity grouping is merely a mechanical means to avoid the disruption of the schedule through co-ordinating the academic classes with enrichment offerings as in music, art, hobby groups, and so forth.

Because of the haphazard fashion in which grouping practices are carried out in some schools, it is particularly important that administrative leaders recognize that considerable forethought should be given to the selection of suitable policies. Since the various grouping plans had different *purposes*, the staff might well begin any study of local policies by examining what purposes the faculty is seeking to achieve. Objectives of the school rather than the mechanics of organization seem the best starting place. The function of leadership here is to help teachers clarify their values, to study the various proposals for organization, and to select that form which is most consistent with their basic purposes.

THE STATUS OF GROUPING IN SCHOOLS TODAY

Examination of the literature of the recent past reveals that little of a definitive nature has been added to writings which

deal with grouping practices.⁵ Jones⁶ reported at some length a project in which 448 heterogeneously grouped pupils and 34 classroom teachers in Richmond, Virginia, worked together for a year to improve accomplishment through individualized instruction. However, the emphasis was less upon grouping *per se* and more upon grouping in relation to guiding individual progress. Writings by Lawson⁷ and Rex⁸ concerned with the grouping of underprivileged and gifted children, respectively, also reveal some current views. Lawson's article is of added interest because the six ability paths she described at the Julia Ward Howe Junior High School in New York City apparently have been used since 1936.⁹

Although not designed to emphasize grouping in relation to the entire school population, Petty's¹⁰ detailed examination of interclass grouping contains a comprehensive review of the literature to which the reader is referred. The present lack of practical information of help to the teacher looking for better ways of grouping in the classroom was noted by Petty. "Professional literature," she comments, "does more to clarify the problem than to give specific help to classroom teachers. . . ."¹¹

Current Practices in Selected Schools. In the absence of more detailed studies of current practices in grouping, reference can be made to a survey of such practices in a selected national sample of 35 suburban schools with programs of recognized excellence.¹²

⁵ In a review of the literature with regard to specific ideas for grouping for instruction within the classroom the writers found little in print, especially above the primary grades. A mere handful of reports of recent date were in the journals scanned.

⁶ Daisy M. Jones, "An Experiment in Adaptation to Individual Differences," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 39:257-272, May, 1948.

⁷ Anna E. Lawson, "Track School: Its Pupils Move on Six Ability Paths," *Clearing House*, 25:515-520, May, 1951.

⁸ Buck E. Rex, "Meeting a Challenge—The Gifted Child in a Heterogeneous Class," *Exceptional Children*, 19:117-120, December, 1952.

⁹ Lawson, *op. cit.*, p. 515.

¹⁰ Mary C. Petty, *Interclass Grouping in the Elementary School* (Austin, Bureau of Laboratory Schools, University of Texas, 1953). Cf. esp. Chapter II.

¹¹ *Ibid.*, p. 17.

¹² Harold G. Shane, "Grouping Practices," *The Nation's Schools*, 49:72-73, May, 1952.

Originally made as a preliminary to writing the present chapter, the survey revealed that the schools of such communities as Glencoe and Winnetka, Illinois, La Due and Webster Groves, Missouri, Shaker Heights and Lakewood, Ohio, Bronxville and Scarsdale, New York, tend to favor a composite approach to grouping. As indicated in Figure 14, ability was used

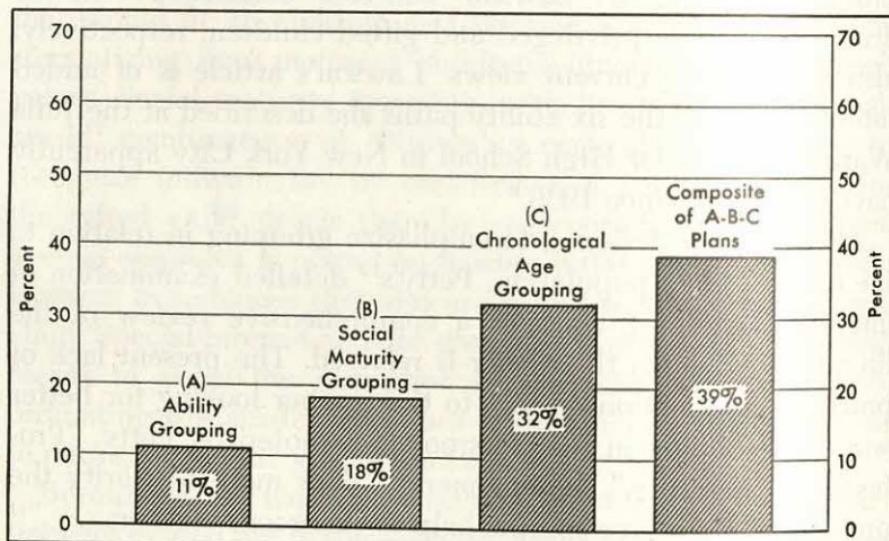


FIG. 14. Grouping plans used in 35 suburban school systems (1952).

as a basis for grouping in 11 per cent of the schools, the social maturity approach in 18 per cent, and simple chronological grouping in 32 per cent.¹³

At first glance it may seem that even among distinguished school districts there is a strong tendency to use a rather unimaginative chronological approach. However, a second look seems to indicate that over half of the systems are attempting in full (18 per cent) or in part (39 per cent) to group children with regard for wholesome social relationships.

This is encouraging. As Otto has noted, no grouping plan ". . . has been devised that will reduce appreciably the range of ability in a class or relieve the teacher of the need of making extensive instructional provisions to meet individual differences.

¹³ *Ibid.*, p. 73.

Hence grouping might as well be done in ways consistent with the known facts about child growth and development."¹⁴ With ease of administration as a goal, as well as for the basic purposes of education, the advantage lies with social maturity grouping.

GROUPING AND MATURITY

Intelligent Use of the Social Maturity Approach. Any leader who undertakes, in coöperation with the staff, a study of the purported merits of ability and chronological grouping is likely to conclude that they fail in important respects to measure up to the best conceptions of a good school organization. Any attempt to force children into an arbitrarily designed mold that ignores their many individual differences or segregates them on the basis of achievement is bound to create at least as many instructional problems as it solves. If age and test scores are ruled out as bases for grouping, the remaining possibility is the use of some type of social maturity grouping. A study of the nature of child growth and development points to the importance and influence of peer groups on the development of the child, and strengthens the case for social maturity grouping. Among its advantages are the following:

- (1) Social maturity grouping not only encourages continuous, insightful study of individual children, but makes successful teaching a direct outcome of that study.
- (2) It focuses attention on the totality of child adjustment rather than on achievement or intelligence alone.
- (3) It tends to increase teacher-teacher coöperation as they discuss and plan the movement of children between rooms within a grade and between grade levels as they progress through school.
- (4) It tends to increase the need for and use of various tools for studying children, thus increasing the teacher's understanding of child study techniques.¹⁵
- (5) It avoids stigmatizing children by placing them in groups singled out as non-academic.

¹⁴ Henry J. Otto, "Promotion Policies," *NEA Journal*, 40:128, February, 1951.

¹⁵ For a list of child study tools, cf. p. 162, *supra*.

- (6) It creates a situation in which the variations of individual difference may be employed to improve and accelerate learning by the group as a whole.
- (7) It more nearly represents the social situation in neighborhoods and community in which individuals must live and to which adjustments must be made.

The selection of social maturity as an educationally defensible basis for grouping children rests on the assumption that one of the important purposes of the school is to provide learners with the skills and knowledges necessary for effective living as an adult. Since the adult world calls upon one to learn to interact functionally in a social climate characterized by individual differences, what is more logical than to challenge the school to contribute to the child's ability to work in this sort of climate at his present level? Also, as McSwain¹⁶ has indicated, a goal of grouping is the modification of the learning environment in ways that foster continuous individual development. The seven values of social maturity grouping listed above are consistent with this aim.

GROUPING IN RELATION TO SCHOOL ORGANIZATION

Grouping as an Integral Part of School Organization. It should be kept in mind that grouping within the classroom, or within the school as a whole, is only one aspect of school organization.¹⁷ Promotion policies, curriculum organization and development, reporting, and other aspects of the program are intimately involved in the decisions that may be made in respect to grouping. Individual teachers need to be concerned with grouping in the school as a whole as well as in relation to their own classroom practices. This broader view of school organization is necessary lest the total become spotty and disjointed. Creative adminis-

¹⁶ E. T. McSwain, "Intermediate Grade Grouping," in *Portfolio for Intermediate Teachers* (Washington, D. C., The Association for Childhood Education, 1946). Unpaged.

¹⁷ The same point may be made with regard to grouping by Petty, *op. cit.*, p. 17.

tration involves leadership which strives to see that plans made for individual grades are both consonant with the best thinking of which the staff is capable, and articulated with the larger framework of organization. It is necessary that administrators avoid the inconsistency of accepting grouping plans based on subject matter achievement, and concurrently strive for social growth and personality development in which subject matter is only one of many interrelated influences. It is all too easy to fall into the habit of such inconsistency when the leader has few contacts with children and is given to verbalizing about mutually exclusive values.

Grouping for Instruction Within the Classroom. Two forms of school organization are in constant competition for the attention of school people—the unit classroom and the departmentalized classroom. While it is not the intention of this section to elaborate upon the pros and cons of the two opposing claims,¹⁸ it is important to point out that grouping within the classroom may be one way by which the issue of the unit versus departmental approach can be resolved. If greater attention can be given to the procedures teachers use to help children learn, the result would be a tremendous reduction in the appeal of the claims to superiority of departmentalized organization with respect to content mastery.

Especially in the primary grades, where departmentalized presentation of subject matter is rarely used, it is important that special attention be given to grouping. Traditionally, children have been separated into groups in reading and sometimes in arithmetic on the basis of ability. There is some evidence to support the idea that a more promising procedure would be that of allowing children to choose their own groups on the basis of interest or the expressed desire to work with certain

¹⁸ The "Summary of Values to be Sought Through Good Grouping" on p. 309f. *infra*, implies the values of the unit classroom over the departmental program through grade 6. See the dichotomy in Chapter Seven, page 230f., for a statement of the case for the subject and the experience curriculum, respectively. Viewpoints given there supporting the subject curriculum are essentially like those which support a departmental type of organization, while those views favoring the experience curriculum are analogous to arguments for the unit classroom.

other children.¹⁹ Some selection on the basis of ability is, of course, inevitable, since slow learning or immature children are not likely to choose voluntarily to work with others who are more advanced.

At all grade levels good intraclass grouping can and probably should revolve around and stem from teacher-pupil planning which results in temporary, flexible "work teams" or committees. Membership in such groups flows and ebbs as children develop purposes and work to find solutions. The selected committee organization probably best exemplifies this type of grouping.

It is apparent that too little study has been given to the internal organization of the classroom for effective learning. Many educators have accepted uncritically the conclusion that the present rather vague policies are the best that can be devised, and children are expected to learn in a rigid framework of adult-logical organization which often slight or restricts their real abilities. The leader who desires to improve environments for learning might well encourage the members of his staff to engage in some courageous and pioneer experimentation in the hope of finding something better than the internal structuring of groups now generally accepted.

Petty²⁰ has made a significant contribution in her analytical study of effective approaches to intra-class grouping. The teacher, she notes, has three roles, (1) as instructor, (2) as democratic strategist, and (3) as therapist;²¹ roles which suggest some of the values to be sought through educationally desirable divisions of youngsters in the classroom. Services the teacher performs in filling these roles include:

- Helping small groups of boys and girls satisfy special needs . . .
- Stimulating "situational thinking" . . .

¹⁹ For a discussion pertinent to the sociometric approach to grouping, cf. Charles E. Moore, "Children Teach Each Other," in *Fostering Mental Health in Our Schools*, 1950 Yearbook of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (Washington, D. C., The Association, 1950), Chapter III.

²⁰ *Op. cit.*, Chapter III.

²¹ *Ibid.*, p. 19.

- Assisting small groups to see themselves in relation to other classroom groups . . .
- Accepting each child where and as he is . . .
- Knowing each child as an individual . . .
- Helping children build internal unity . . .
- Aiding individuals and groups to use pertinent resources . . .
- Developing genuinely educational resources.²²

Elements involved in successful group work of the sort touched upon above have been discussed in various sources, notably by Thelen who mentions several important qualities which influence the productivity of a group. They include: having a goal, reaching group consensus rather than mere majority opinion, establishing objectives the group actually *can* attain, continuing evaluation and modification of objectives as circumstances dictate, and continuity of action that goes beyond one narrow problem.²³

The subtlety of insight required of the teacher for genuinely effective, sensitively developed grouping within the classroom is considerable. This seems evident from the points made above. These points also emphasize the need for educational leaders to *help teachers study children* in order to improve grouping. Child study and improved grouping are inseparable. **Grouping for Instruction Within the School.** Attention now focuses on grouping in the school as a whole. Grouping practices which cut across classroom and grade level lines are considered under the three headings which follow.

The ungraded junior-senior kindergarten. It is highly likely that leaders can work with teachers in improving the structure of children's early years in school by introducing the ungraded approach in the four- and five-year-old kindergarten. Customarily, where schools have been fortunate enough to have both junior (4-year-old) and senior (5-year-old) kindergartens, these have been organized as more or less separate entities. In justification of such separation it is argued that the develop-

²² Adapted from "Meeting the Needs of the Whole Child Through Group Participation," *Teachers College Record*, 50:298-300, February, 1949.

²³ H. A. Thelen, "Engineering Research in Curriculum Building," *Journal of Educational Research*, 41:589ff., April, 1948.

mental stage in which the four-year-old exists is quite different from that found in five-year-olds. This assertion, however, ignores the fact that children during this two-year span overlap considerably in developmental maturity. Arbitrary separation of the fours and fives also ignores the fact that, in natural family or neighborhood groupings, younger children learn readily and enthusiastically from older ones.

It seems sensible to propose that the elimination of the lines of separation between the junior-senior kindergarten would enhance the potential contribution of the two-year period. Where real differences in maturation are found to exist these could be treated through individual guidance.

The concept of the ungraded kindergarten embraces the notion that the half-days²⁴ spent therein by any single child would depend primarily on his growth patterns and needs. Some advanced children might spend only one year in the combined kindergarten, most children would spend two years, and the most slowly maturing might conceivably profit from a three-year stay.

Teachers in the ungraded kindergarten, as envisioned here, would have predominantly mixed age groups of four- and five-year-olds (although it is possible that a substantial number of four-year-olds would have their school experiences scheduled in the morning only, so that their need for afternoon naps would not be slighted). Each boy and girl would be continually studied with the most effective child-study instruments available (for example, reading readiness tests, intelligence tests, sociometric devices), and also observed carefully by the teachers so that professionally mature decisions concerning what constitutes the best rate of progress for each child may be determined. His advancement from the ungraded kindergarten to the next unit of organization should probably be decided by the teacher in close consultation with parents, other teachers, the principal, and school psychologist.

Schools with but one year of kindergarten (five-year-olds)

²⁴ It is assumed that half-day kindergartens will be the rule for some time because of heavy enrollments and the pressures of crowded schools.

might borrow those aspects of the ungraded concept which apply. For instance, it might be agreed that, while the average child would spend a full year in the kindergarten, more slowly maturing children might profit from an additional year, depending upon the judgment of the teacher in consultation with other faculty members and parents.

It should be noted in passing that the extension of public education downward to include four-year-olds is not a wild dream. As large a city as Milwaukee has two years of free public kindergarten. The junior kindergarten has been accepted for some years in such places as Shorewood, Wisconsin, and in Winnetka, Glencoe, and Kenilworth in Illinois, and various other communities.

The ungraded primary unit. It is a natural and logical projection of the ungraded kindergarten to propose that the concepts it embodies be applied at least to the first three years of school beyond the kindergarten. In such an organization, children of six, seven, and eight are grouped together with about a third of the pupils enrolled in a given classroom being of each age. The child normally enters the primary unit at the age of six and leaves after a two, three, or four year stay, the length of time being determined by his rate of progress toward social and intellectual maturity. This flexible organization for learning involves the following features:

- (1) Instead of having, say, one group each for grades 1, 2, and 3, there are three ungraded primary units.
- (2) Selection of enrollment for each unit is made on the basis of organizing well-balanced groups under the guidance of a capable teacher. When experience indicates that a certain child is poorly placed, he is reassigned to one of the other units.
- (3) The educational leader is expected to provide considerable long-range advice in helping teachers select the pupil personnel for each of the social-group units, since these initial choices of unit composition will have much to do with subsequent grouping for learning in the intermediate and junior high school years.

- (4) The composition of each primary unit changes each year, when eight-year-olds generally advance to the intermediate unit, and six-year-olds are admitted from the kindergarten. Thus, one-third of the membership in the group is new each year, yet a constant nucleus is present to give the group solidarity and continuity.
- (5) In a moderately large school (e.g., 500 pupils) ungraded

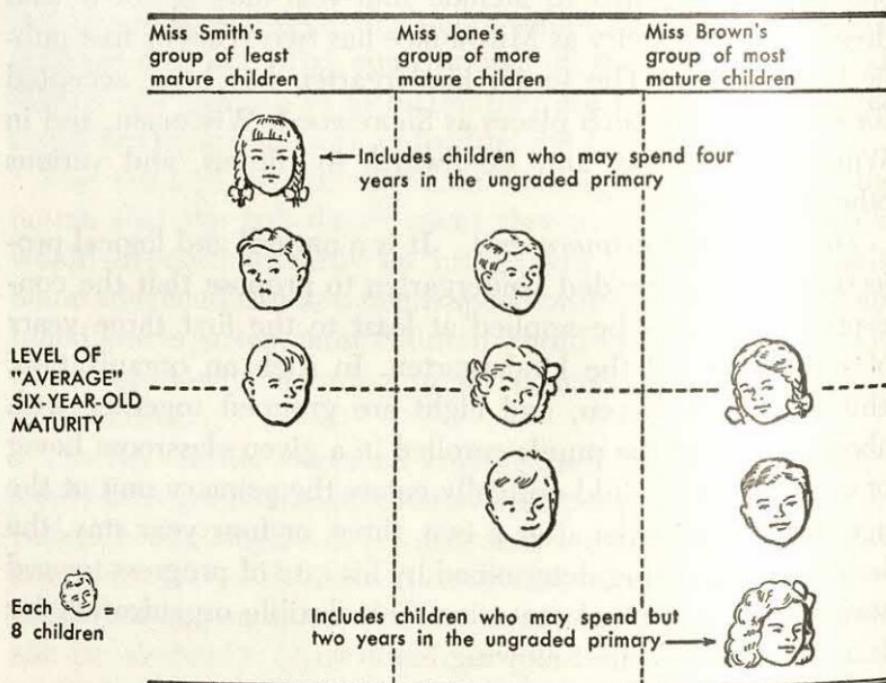


FIG. 15. Spread of maturity among children in the first year of an ungraded primary school with three six-year-old groups enrolled.

primary children at the six-year-old level might be grouped as follows among what would be three first grade teachers in a more conventionally organized school:

Miss Smith is deemed to be especially able as a guide for slow maturing children, whether socially, academically, or physically. She has the $\frac{1}{9}$ th of all the six-year-olds who are least mature, but the upper two-thirds of her group is approximately as mature as the lower two-thirds of Miss Jones' class. Further, the upper one-third of Miss Smith's

group is approximately as mature as the lower one-third of Miss Brown's "most mature" group.

- (6) Work can be planned creatively by each teacher during the two to three years she is normally with the group, with careful regard to the nature of the group during any one given year.

The above plan may be modified in such manner that it could fit even the conventionally graded school, with the major exception of the spread in chronological ages which the plan involves. Instead of assigning individual children arbitrarily, or by chance selection, to *any* first grade teacher, the kindergarten teachers might, in consultation with the whole group of first grade teachers, attempt to construct first grade groups in which social maturity, physical development, and desirable social groupings of children are given major emphasis. The flexibility of the ungraded unit would be partially lost, but some of the more important features of grouping by social maturity could be salvaged.

Some of the values of the ungraded primary approach include the following:

- (1) The teacher has a substantial period of time in which to study, understand, and help a given group of individuals.
- (2) Articulation of content is facilitated from one year to the next because the same teacher is coördinating the children's experiences.
- (3) There is prolonged opportunity for a given teacher to develop rapport with parents.
- (4) Pressure to bring children up to standard achievement norms is likely to be reduced in the early years.
- (5) The spread of maturity characteristic of conventional grade organization can be controlled and its extremes reduced.
- (6) Those children who need four years to complete the three-year primary school may do so without being conspicuously stigmatized.
- (7) Pupils presumably move freely at any time from one group to another as their growth rates vary from year to year.

Some practical disadvantages of ungraded primary groups

also confront administrator and faculty and must be countered in individual situations. Children need to be protected from prolonged contact with an inept teacher, rapid staff or pupil turn-over create problems, and the creative ingenuity of some teachers wears thin in continuous interaction with the same children. The ungraded idea is, therefore, proposed less as an absolute answer or cure-all for grouping ills than for its value in stimulating imaginative thinking by leadership.

The ungraded intermediate school. In nearly every important aspect, wholesome organization of the child's learning during his ninth, tenth, and eleventh years follows in principle that of the primary unit, with one notable exception. It is here that the controversy of departmentalization is most likely to be joined! Many teachers are not sufficiently versatile to provide enriching experiences in special areas as children become increasingly mature and can profit from contact with teachers highly prepared in special subjects. Perceptive teachers will see that the problem cannot be settled on an either-or basis. The solution lies in a careful and intelligent use of *both* the unit classroom concept and the departmental, or specialized instruction, approach, with part of the day devoted to unified learning experiences with a single instructor and with special personnel, as in art or music, involved in other aspects of the program. Since this book is directed to the role of leadership in achieving better programs for boys and girls, and since space limitations prevent presentations of elaborate program discussions, the reader is referred to such writers as Faunce and Bossing,²⁵ Featherstone,²⁶ Noar,²⁷ and Sternig²⁸ for a discussion of the core curriculum and its organization. The concept of the problem-centered core (particularly in grade 7 and above) is

²⁵ R. C. Faunce and N. L. Bossing, *Developing the Core Curriculum* (New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1951), cf. Chapters 4, 6, 9, and 11.

²⁶ William Featherstone, *A Fundamental Curriculum for Youth* (New York: American Book Co., 1950), cf. Chapters 6-10.

²⁷ Gertrude Noar, *Freedom to Live and Learn* (Philadelphia, Franklin Publishing Co., 1948). Cf. Chapters 3-7.

²⁸ John Sternig, "Curriculum Concepts in a Community School: Glencoe, Illinois," in Hollis L. Caswell (ed.), *Curriculum Improvement in Public School Systems* (New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1950).

one of the most promising ideas in the last twenty-five years to come out of the thinking of educators concerned with the upper grades. At the same time, it must be recognized that it is not a "new idea" to introduce the core²⁹ into the middle grades, 4 through 6. It is merely an attempt to capture some of the values of the unit classroom in the departmental framework which frequently is deemed necessary to provide enriched and varied resources for older children in junior-senior high schools.³⁰

A SUMMARY OF VALUES TO BE SOUGHT THROUGH GOOD GROUPING³¹

Educational leaders will do well to develop a personal sense of direction with regard to grouping practices consistent with wholesome child development as suggested in earlier chapters.³² As a summary of values to be sought through educationally defensible grouping, the following is proposed. The eight points were suggested by categories developed by Cornell³³ in conjunction with his efforts to develop "descriptive measurements" of schools.

First, good grouping should provide for individual differences among the children; the size of the group should be kept reasonable and the structure flexible.

Second, the structure of the grouping should be such that it encourages desirable interaction among the children and re-

²⁹ Defined here as the study of problems meaningful to children and to which subject areas contribute functionally.

³⁰ One of the more comprehensive and competently written treatments of the core curriculum may be found in Harold Alberty's *Reorganizing the Core Curriculum* (revised edition, New York, The Macmillan Co., 1953), p. 166ff. Note his identification of six interpretations of the term "core," pp. 167-168.

³¹ The summary of values which follows is influenced in part by the work of Francis G. Cornell, *et al.*, as reported in *An Exploratory Measurement of Individualities of Schools and Classrooms*, University of Illinois Bulletin, 50:72, June, 1953.

³² Cf. pp. 34ff., and 47-60.

³³ Cf. Cornell, *op. cit.*, p. 20ff. While Cornell was not directly concerned with grouping, his "dimensions for measuring classroom individuality" in a number of instances can be adapted and used in a discussion of grouping as in the eight points presented.

duces the tendency to develop social cliques or splinter groups. In other words, the structure should work for social cohesion.

Third, grouping should permit a substantial amount of control and direction by the pupils in coöperation with the teacher. This assumes that the nature of the curriculum is not so narrowly conceived that the subject matter and experiences in which the members engage are automatically predetermined.

Fourth, grouping should serve to encourage the use of such subject matter as will best serve the individual learner's progress toward maturity. This suggests the importance of flexible and tentative grade placement of subject matter.

Fifth, grouping should encourage multiple, varied approaches to learning which recognize that children learn in many different ways; some by logical organization, some by more direct experiences, others by attacks upon abstract or theoretical problems.

Sixth, grouping should make it possible for teachers to study their children in varied social situations which will discourage them from over-generalizing about "children in general."

Seventh, grouping should provide teachers with a psychologically comfortable "working climate" free from unreasonable strain, haste, and pressure to achieve arbitrarily established standards or goals.

Eighth, grouping should create a wholesome climate socially, emotionally, and academically for children, free from *unreasonable* demands for performance not yet justified by their maturity level.

APPLYING SOUND DEVELOPMENTAL PRINCIPLES TO SELECTED PRACTICES IN SCHOOL ORGANIZATION

Because of this book's concern with the *role* of the educational leader rather than the *mechanics* of school organization *per se*, a review of specific plans and schemes of school organization has been deliberately omitted. Detailed treatments are available in numerous other sources, such as Otto,³⁴ Elsbree

³⁴ Henry J. Otto, "Historical Sketches of Administrative Innovations," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 20: 161-172, March, 1934.

and McNally,³⁵ Reavis, Pierce, Stullken and Smith,³⁶ and Dougherty, Gorman and Phillips.³⁷

Here the concern is with administrative and leadership policies related to school organization, particularly certain desirable features of school structure which are all too often overlooked in elementary and junior high school programs. Proposals regarding desirable practices and policies are discussed with regard for principles which seem consistent with the wholesome development of children.

Entrance Age, Length of the School Day, and of Class Periods. Almost universally, children are admitted to the first year of school on the basis of established legal entrance ages in a given state. Where kindergartens are provided, it is often customary to admit in September those children who are five years old or who will reach the age of five by the first day of December (or January or February, as the case may be) of that year. Many controversies simmer around the question of the advisability of arbitrary admission requirements, with particular attention centered on disagreements as to the day of the year which shall be used as a dead-line for admission. There has been much effort to discover some formula which will eliminate the necessity of making professional judgments about the child's readiness for school.

Consideration of the highly individual nature of child growth will reveal that no such formula is likely to be devised. Any attempt to mechanize the procedure of admission is certain to work to the disadvantage of some children. The "obvious" solution which comes to mind is simple and workable if flexible, ungraded kindergarten-primary groupings are adopted: allow children to enter school as soon as state law permits, and adjust and modify the program to fit the needs of individual children. A fluid concept of the length of time children shall spend in

³⁵ W. S. Elsbree and H. J. McNally, *Elementary School Administration and Supervision* (New York, American Book Co., 1951), p. 86ff.

³⁶ W. C. Reavis, *et al.*, *Administering the Elementary School* (New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1953), Chapters 7 and 8.

³⁷ J. H. Dougherty, F. H. Gorman, C. A. Phillips, *Elementary School Organization and Management* (Revised edition, New York, The Macmillan Co., 1950), Chapters 2 and 3.

junior or senior kindergarten, as proposed earlier in the chapter, makes dogmatic entrance policies unnecessary.

Another matter marked by conflicting opinion is that of the length of the school day. If one observes the effects of the sit-and-listen type of program on young children, he is likely to conclude that it is far too long, regardless of its actual length. To ask children—dynamic systems of energy—to dam up their movements for an unbroken hour or more at a time does violence to their need for activity. (Parenthetically, it may be added that schools which conceive of teaching and learning as persual-of-books are also denying children the opportunity for personal development through first-hand, active experience which is available in *any* school environment.) On the other hand, the great amount of knowledge available to modern man, and his increasing need to use it, urges the need to learn as much as possible in the time available. Ergo, one is inclined to argue that the school day is not nearly long enough. Perhaps the answer as to what constitutes the "best" length for the school day is dependent upon the nature of that school day!

To be good environments for children during a lengthened day, school programs must be more interesting and active than many are now. They must have a pace that is alternately stimulating and relaxing, intellectually challenging and recreational, and must show a responsibility for guided personal development not yet attained save in a small minority of school districts.

In preparation for this volume the authors undertook a study of the length of school days in a number of selected school systems. The table on page 313 indicates that, while there is a certain amount of uniformity in policies, there is also so much variation as to urge a re-examination of present practice.³⁸

Reorganization of Class Periods. When one considers the number of separate class periods devoted to various phases of the curriculum, one is struck with the great variety and number of activities in which children are expected to engage during the day. Instructional programs occasionally have been chopped

³⁸ Harold G. Shane, "Curriculum Practices in Educationally Interesting Elementary Schools," *The Nation's Schools*, 50:41-42, August, 1952.

up to a point at which one despairs of the child ever making any sense of the fragments: reading divorced from subject matter content, geography and history taught separately with little if any relationship, penmanship taught as an exercise rather than a vehicle for expressing ideas, grammar presented as a set of restrictions to be observed to a point at which it hampers the communication it is meant to clarify. A pronounced need in many elementary and junior high schools is the reduction of isolated exposures to non-functional knowledge and the unification of the day in terms of meaningful experiences. This would serve to end the controversy as to how long a day children can "take." If school experience is good, if the

LENGTH OF THE SCHOOL DAY IN 35 SUBURBAN SCHOOL SYSTEMS

<i>Grade Level</i>	<i>Range in Hours</i>	<i>Median</i>
Nursery (4-year-olds)	2 to 3½	2½
Kindergarten	1½ to 5¾	2½
1st	2½ to 6½	4½
2nd	3½ to 6²/₃	5
3rd	3½ to 6²/₃	5
4th	3²/₃ to 6²/₃	5
5th	3²/₃ to 6²/₃	5½
6th	3²/₃ to 6²/₃	5¾
7th and 8th	5 to 6²/₃	5¾

school day embraces large blocks of time and a wide variety of related content, its length need be limited only by principles of mental hygiene which determine the limits to be placed on the energy of the teacher and the growing child.

As school staffs face the daily necessity of making concrete plans for the development of the educational program, such considerations as entrance age and length of learning periods are of immediate concern. Competent administrative leadership helps teachers make decisions in the light of criteria pertaining to developmentally desirable living for boys and girls. A rapidly expanding body of developmental data is available if educators will but use it more fully.

The Advisory Program for Young Adolescents. If departmental organization of the junior high school precludes a unit classroom under the direction of a single teacher, it is possible to introduce some aspects of the ungraded classroom by using the "home-room" or "advisory program" designed for this purpose. A large number of junior high schools use some form of home-room organization in which students meet with an advisor, usually prior to attending various separate classes scheduled for the day. Customarily, the students in any one home-room are grouped on the basis of grade level (i.e., the 7th or 8th grade). However, it is possible to group these children in a mixed age grouping, each home-room being composed of children from two or three grade levels, in much the same fashion as that described for the primary unit.

It seems reasonable that values such as those ascribed to the ungraded primary unit are, if only in attenuated form, also associated with "ungraded advisory" groups for young adolescents. The teacher assigned to an advisory program can, for instance, look forward to continuous guidance of a particular child for a period of three years, during which time it would be possible to get to know each student with considerable intimacy. The typical "cliques" which form in some schools around grade or social levels can more easily be discouraged when the home-room involves mixed age groups. There is also the possibility, as home-room or advisory teachers help individual students with a wide variety of problems, that traditional barriers between subject matter specialties can be lowered. The more flexible the organization of the advisory program the greater the possibility for retaining some of the important teacher-pupil and pupil-pupil relationships which good schools seek.

School Activities for Older Children. In setting up the organization of the total learning experience for older children, it is desirable that a broad view of the responsibility of the school be taken. The staff is short-sighted if it assumes that its obligations have terminated when high standards of subject matter learning have been met. The well-run junior high school might well include the following as additions to the school program:

- (1) Activities, such as hobby clubs or special interest groups as an *integral part* of the school day. Periods might be set aside during which the student body re-divides itself on the basis of shared interests.
- (2) Non-exclusive social activities could be sponsored by the school so as to give the sensitive adolescent a feeling of belongingness, and a chance to develop social skills under the guidance of sympathetic teachers. "By-invitation" social clubs and organizations will not accomplish this objective in a satisfactory fashion.
- (3) The home-room might well serve as a force for social integration of children of diverse backgrounds and socio-economic levels. The development of social cohesion among members of the home-room could go a long way in creating new social organizations in the school.³⁹

School Service Organizations. Children should have ample opportunities to learn the values of giving service to others. One of the effective means of achieving this purpose is to organize, under the sponsorship of the school, various service agencies through and in which children have opportunities to engage in socially useful work. Some of these activities might be:

- helping with the school store.
- working with projectors and similar teaching aids.
- arranging bulletin boards and show-case displays.
- serving as cafeteria helpers in schools with lunch programs.
- giving safety patrol service in coöperation with the traffic department of the local police force.
- giving clerical service in the school office.
- helping with book and supply distribution.

This list could be extended several times over. Its purpose here is to illustrate ways in which creative leaders and staffs can find many opportunities for children to give useful service within the environment of the school.

In the process of setting up socially useful work, there are a number of cautions to be observed. The decision as to what

³⁹ For an excellent description of activities in which junior high school students can engage with profit, cf. Dan Stiles, *High Schools for Tomorrow* (New York, Harper and Brothers, 1946).

services children shall give should be made on the basis of whether or not the service is truly needed, or whether it assumes the proportions of "made work." Children will quickly sense any attempt at giving them artificial, simulated responsibility and resent both the artificiality and the insult to their intelligence. On the other hand, it is important that children are not exploited in order to save expense. For example, there is no excuse for using student help in the school office in order to avoid the necessity of employing a school clerk, or to use children to direct traffic in a place so hazardous as to require a regular police officer.

When a faculty begins to devise with children the kind of activities proposed above, the administrator and teachers should recognize quickly that a fluid concept of school organization is implied if children are to be encouraged to engage in service activities. The staff also should resist the possible temptation to exploit the academically gifted; to give *them* all the opportunities to be of service to the school. In most cases, these children are the ones who least need the additional recognition. If the school is to provide *all* children with opportunities for maximum development, it is clear that the service jobs should be delegated with primary regard to their benefit to the individual, and only secondarily as assets to the school. Where this value is acknowledged, many jobs are certain to go to those children who need the satisfaction of contributing services to the school, regardless of intellectual endowment.

School Organization and Homework. The custom of assigning all children in a particular group identical work to be done outside of school hours needs careful reconsideration in the context of school organization. Administrators need to examine the school day to determine, in coöperation with teachers, whether the program provides children with a reasonable opportunity to do their work during the span of the elementary and junior high school day. Many schools, partly in response to the urging of a minority of parents, send young children home after four or five hours in school with enough work to keep them indoors the rest of the day. Almost inevitably the parents come in for a share of labor involving long-forgotten subject matter.

The indefensibility of uniformly assigned homework lies in the sameness of the assignment. When an entire group of children is required to cover the same material, irrespective of the individual ability and needs of each youngster, one may legitimately question whether children's needs are being met and their energies intelligently directed. An equally pointed question may be raised as to whether mass home-study assignments are a defensible substitute for healthful play in the out-of-doors during the late afternoon hours. Finally, homework competes for the time children might spend in after-school and early evening hours in scouting, service activities, recreational reading, music lessons, and so on.

Objections to homework assigned on a *group* basis does not necessarily extend to *all* kinds. There are probably many circumstances in which out-of-school time may well be spent on work which is stimulated by school experiences. Skillful teachers are capable of developing such a healthy and absorbing interest in school that children voluntarily carry their enthusiasm beyond the classroom. Projects in which children are engaged often require outside work if they are not to languish. Some school interests are so fascinating that further study and concentration may be considered a form of recreational outlet. And, in spite of the fact that a teacher may provide ample opportunity during the day for an individual child to get his work done, it may be to his best interest occasionally to undertake additional effort during out-of-school hours. The staff which approaches the problem of homework realistically and with full appreciation of the needs and interests of children will surely conclude that an answer cannot be found which fits all cases equally well. Instead of arguing over the question: "Homework or no homework?" time had better be spent in deciding, "What kind of homework for whom?" and "How can the organizational structure of the school day be modified to reduce unreasonable home requirements?"

Discipline and School Organization. It is not intended here to discuss in detail the principles and practices of "good discipline," but merely to point out that certain children may become embroiled in personal difficulties that arise through faulty

or inadequate school organization. The following statements should serve to illustrate the point that discipline and school organization are sometimes closely related:

- Departmentalized organization of the school subjects may lead to a child becoming "lost" and getting into scrapes because no one teacher is working with him and helping to give him a sense of direction for his efforts and energies.
- Demands from a great variety of sources may create so much pressure on some children as to lead to behavior problems. For instance, heavy assignments from several teachers, none of whom is aware of what other teachers are expecting, may cause some youngsters to misbehave as a means of giving vent to their academic frustrations.
- The able child can frequently get into mischief because the organizational framework has prevented all of his teachers from understanding the extent of his abilities. Too *little* challenge of the child's capacities can be as harmful as too *much* in causing discipline problems.
- Children who transfer from one school to another may get into trouble because of lack of acquaintance with the new school's policies and prohibitions. It is particularly important in departmentalized schools to help new students understand the organizational structure.
- A school faculty which over-emphasizes attainment of merit awards for high grades and/or service may cause some children to become frustrated and indifferent if they cannot qualify for recognition. "Bad" behavior is a likely outcome unless school organization provides for intelligent guidance.
- School organization which implies that acquisition of subject matter content is all that matters is almost certain to lead to difficulties with the child who is rejected by "good" students because of his poor academic showing.
- An unsympathetic staff of teachers who make arbitrary and unswerving demands for obedience and acquiescence will create problems in behavior that are uncommonly hard to solve.
- Elementary or junior high schools which seek to copy high

school organizational patterns in the effort to anticipate increased pressure for achievement in the upper grades may often pass on the pressure to children who are too immature to absorb it, thus creating tension and resentment which finds expression in behavior problems.

The above list is sufficient to demonstrate that some of the causes of disciplinary problems may be found in the nature of the school organization adopted. *Behavior is caused*, and that which is undesirable should be scrutinized to determine whether it can be improved by modifying the nature of the school environment rather than by attempting to force the child into a pattern of conduct demanded by the school.

SUMMARY

During the years in which public education has become almost a universal privilege in the United States, leadership has pioneered in numerous grouping schemes in the effort to facilitate instruction. At present, many good schools have departed from elaborate mechanical plans and are striving to bring professional judgment to bear on the improvement of grouping through the social maturity approach. Since sensitive and insightful study is requisite to organizing socially well-balanced groups, both teachers and administrators have an opportunity and responsibility with regard to improving the quality of the school structure. Above all else, such organization must be consistent with research in the field of child development and the learning process.

Good grouping practices frequently require an imaginative re-organization of many features characterizing elementary and junior high schools at present. The flexible approach embodied in a less rigid graded structure—i.e., experimentation with ungraded primary and intermediate groups—and less mechanistic departmentalization in the upper grades and/or junior high schools are among current proposals which promise to improve the educational environment of children and youth.

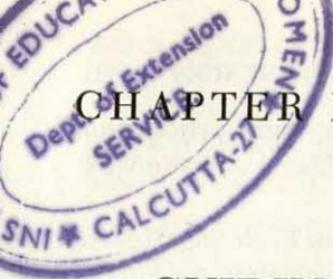
Instructional policies which are often dependent upon flexi-

ble grouping were discussed briefly in the concluding section of Chapter Ten. A sampling of desirable practices which involve functional re-organization were presented and analyzed to indicate, for instance, how homework, discipline problems and participation in school service organizations could be improved by changing the structure of the program. Throughout, emphasis was placed on the importance of developing a *flexible concept of school organization* so that a more desirable quality of learning could more easily be achieved.

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GUIDING CHILDREN'S PROGRESS THROUGH SCHOOL



OF ALL the points of contact between schools and parents probably none are more important to good home-school relationships than are promotion and pupil reporting. Some parents neither attend Parent-Teacher Association meetings nor participate in child study groups. Some do not attend school programs or athletic events. Many a mother and father are unaware of school costs or are undisturbed by changes in instructional methods, and some are even oblivious of crowded classrooms. But rare indeed is the parent who is not acutely conscious of whether his child receives good progress reports, or is not deeply involved emotionally if his child fails to be promoted at the close of the academic year.

The strong emotional attitude of parents with respect to report cards and promotion practices seemingly is related to the fact that, consciously or unconsciously, they suspect that *they* are deserving of credit or censure for the success or failure of their child in school. Many fathers and mothers probably feel that the "family honor" is in some way sullied when a poor report card is delivered. And the very genes and chromosomes of the entire clan are impugned if a child is expected to repeat a grade!

Some verses from a popular magazine well illustrate the

silver cord which binds parents to child and reduces objective judgment to the vanishing point when one's *own* offspring is involved:

MY CHILD AND YOURS¹

When my child hits your child
He has not yet adjusted
But when your child hits my child
He simply can't be trusted.

My child's temper tantrums
Prove only that he's bored
But your child's violent outbursts
Simply cannot be ignored.

When my child breaks your child's toys
They weren't built for normal use
But when your child breaks my child's toys
There's no sense in such abuse.

My child is such a little dear
That surely you can see
If your child were mine to rear
How different he would be.

—Winifred Cavanaugh

Parents are similarly biased when their child's progress in school is the point in question.

Administrative leadership which seeks to help teachers in the shared task of guiding and reporting pupil progress undertakes one of its major human relations functions in shaping policies which are both sound and acceptable to the several parties concerned: parents, children, and the staff.

THE CHANGING STATUS OF PROMOTION POLICIES

The more complex graded elementary and junior high school of the present has replaced the small, often ungraded, school of generations past, but still faces the same problems created

¹ Reprinted from *Better Homes and Gardens* by permission of the Meredith Publishing Co., Des Moines, Iowa.

by the fact that children normally do not progress at the same rate. The educational ingenuity of administrators and teachers alike has been taxed by the understandable and desirable, but organizationally troublesome, characteristic of children to differ so markedly.

"Laggards in Our Schools." One of the early maxims governing promotion policies was that children should not move into the grade above until they had completed minimum academic essentials for the grade in which they were currently enrolled. The result was that the non-promotion or failure rate in public schools during the first half of the present century was enormous.

Since Ayers wrote *Laggards in Our Schools*² in 1909, various researches have consistently shown that from 10 per cent to over 50 per cent of the children and adolescents enrolled in representative public schools repeat at least one, and sometimes two or three grades while moving from kindergarten through the eighth or ninth year in school. In New York City, for example, at one time less than half the pupils completed their work at the rate of one grade per year.³ Similar pronounced retardation was found in a review made of nation-wide surveys by Cooke,⁴ and at the state level by Ayer.⁵ An informal inquiry made by the writers among 48 village and city superintendents in the middle west during the 1953-1954 academic year indicated that, on the average, these administrators estimated from 25 to 35 out of each 100 children in their districts had repeated at least one year of work before leaving grade 8. Brandon, in 1950, reported that 30 per cent of all pupils in the first six grades repeated one-half year or more in her school district.⁶

² L. P. Ayers, *Laggards in Our Schools* (Troy, The Russell Sage Foundation, 1909). Ayers actually made the study during 1907-1908.

³ E. A. Nifenecker and H. B. Campbell, *Statistical Reference Data Relating to Problems of Over-Ageless, Educational Retardation, Non-Promotion*, Publication No. 28 (New York, The Board of Education, 1937).

⁴ D. H. Cooke, "A Study of School Surveys with Regard to Age-Grade Distribution," *Peabody Journal of Education*, 8:259-266, 1931.

⁵ F. C. Ayer, *The Progress of Pupils in the State of Texas*. Bulletin of the Section of Superintendence, Texas State Teachers Association, 1934.

⁶ Bertha M. Brandon, "How Waco, Texas, Changed to Annual Promotion," *The Nation's Schools*, 45:72-73, March, 1950.

Clearly, the matter of pupil promotion is a problem. Not only does "failure" have an undesirable emotional influence on the child and his family; it also complicates the teaching situation and increases the crowding in schools already filled to overflowing. Two children out of 30 repeating a grade in a six-grade elementary school with three classrooms per grade level can add 36 children, or the equivalent of an additional classroom, to the school's population in a given year!

Changing Conceptions of What Constitute Good Promotion Policies.

During recent decades there has been an increasing body of opinion which opposes the view that the attainment of certain minimum academic essentials is adequate as the *sole criterion for promotion* during any *one* year a child spends in school. Impetus may well have been given to this trend by such reports as Caswell and Foshay's able summary of the arguments for and against nonpromotion.⁷ Other investigations by individuals such as Akridge,⁸ Cooke,⁹ Collinson,¹⁰ and Sandin¹¹ in one way or another support the conclusion voiced by Otto that, "It is inconsistent with the facts of human nature to expect all children in a class to make similar progress in a given period."¹² Otto, who has studied promotion problems for years, goes on to make the point, "Arbitrary . . . promotion policies applied to a whole class are simply incongruous."¹³

If the view is accepted that uniform academic achievement is too narrow a foundation for promotion, the administrator and staff are left with the question of what shall be substituted for

⁷ Hollis L. Caswell and A. W. Foshay, *Education in the Elementary School* (Second edition, New York, American Book Co., 1950), Chap. XI.

⁸ G. H. Akridge, *Pupil Progress Policies and Practices* (New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1937). Contributions to Education, No. 691.

⁹ Cooke, *op. cit.*

¹⁰ Leslie Collinson, *Chronological Acceleration and Retardation at the Junior High School Level*, Doctoral Dissertation (Nashville, The George Peabody College for Teachers, 1940).

¹¹ A. A. Sandin, *Social and Emotional Adjustment of Regularly Promoted and Non-Promoted Pupils*, Child Development Monographs, No. 32 (New York, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1944).

¹² Henry J. Otto, "Promotion Policies," *NEA Journal*, 40:128-129, February, 1951.

¹³ *Ibid.*, p. 129.

grade standards. Several proposals merit the careful study of creative leadership. They include "trial promotion," the so-called "no failure" policy, and the "continuous progress" approach.

Trial promotion permits the child who has a low academic average to move ahead with his age group despite the fact that his achievement has been below the school's standards for promotion. In view of the fact that children do not follow consistent patterns of progress in absorbing skill and knowledge, trial promotion permits someone who has been on an academic plateau in grade 3, for instance, to catch up during a subsequent spurt in grade 4. Temporarily, at least, the stigma and possible psychological blocking caused by failure is avoided. However, the threat of demotion, like the sword that Dionysius of Syracuse dangled over the head of Damocles, hangs by a hair, and consequently is a psychological hazard. Also, a tentative promotion often ignores the need to study the *cause* of a child's poor performance in a previous grade. He has a stay of execution, yes, but may be given little help in finding a permanent solution to his slow scholastic progress.

The no failure policy, if ineptly handled, may permit children to remain with their age-mates until their difficulties with school work are embarrassingly conspicuous and a source of frustration to both the child and the school. Probably no well-organized school has a policy of "100% promotion" without regard for the individuality of the child who is floundering. At the same time, some educators in reacting against the incongruity of rigid standards may have made the error of concluding that *no* criteria for progress creates a better situation than too-arbitrary measures. Again, a "no failure" policy may tend to discourage analysis of the reasons that cause a boy or girl to lag.

The continuous progress approach is the most appealing of the three reactions against inflexible achievement standards which are examined here. This approach assumes that children should move through school at a rate consistent with their individual mental, physical, social, and emotional growth toward

maturity. Heed is given, in other words, to the "central tendency of growth" for which Olson has proposed the term "organismic age."¹⁴ Children who mature more slowly than others do not "flunk," to use the argot of childhood. However, they may spend more than six years in the first six grades following a program which, while avoiding the repetition of a grade, may prolong their stay in school.¹⁵

Consider the departmentalized junior high school for a moment. If it is usual for most children to carry a five-subject schedule of classes for three years, the slow maturing child may be enrolled in four subjects for four years. He does not repeat a year, yet he is allowed time to work at a rate his ability permits and there is additional time for him to mature. Lawson¹⁶ has reported on an individual ability plan in a school where 80 per cent of the pupils in grades 7-9 originally were retarded and came from low socio-economic level families. The plan has also operated well for years in the Skokie Junior High School in Winnetka, Illinois, at the other end of the economic scale. With imagination and the necessary investment of energy, the continuous progress approach can be made to work.¹⁷

Changing conceptions of promotion policies, as may be inferred from the first two of the three ideas mentioned above, for the most part require substantial additional thought and study by administrative leaders and teachers. It is nevertheless heartening to note that educators are beginning to recognize that a number of old assumptions which support non-promotion have been largely discredited. Caswell and Foshay, in their exceptionally fine and extensive treatment of regulating pupil progress,¹⁸ cite research which indicates that the following

¹⁴ Willard C. Olson, *Child Development* (Boston, D. C. Heath and Co., 1949), p. 40.

¹⁵ For a narrative description of the continuous progress approach in the primary and intermediate years, cf. Harold G. Shane, "The Promotion Policy Dilemma," *NEA Journal* 42:411-412, October, 1953.

¹⁶ Anna E. Lawson, "Track School: Its Pupils Move on Six Ability Paths," *The Clearing House*, 25:515-520, May, 1951.

¹⁷ See p. 330 below for further comment on promotion policies and school organization.

¹⁸ Caswell and Foshay, *op. cit.*, pp. 331-381.

beliefs with respect to non-promotion are no longer tenable:

- (1) That high standards of achievement are protected by non-promotion.
- (2) That instruction is simplified because non-promotion makes the children in a class approximately equal in achievement.
- (3) That non-promotion motivates children to work harder and achieve more than in the absence of such a policy.
- (4) That society is protected by non-promotion from individuals who presumably are educated but really are not.¹⁹

Caswell and Foshay summarize their analyses with a point deserving of inclusion here as sound advice to administrative leadership: the defensible promotion policies are those which protect the child from demands that he work beyond his ability as a concomitant of premature promotion, yet also spare him from the bad effects which non-promotion can have on a pupil's attitude.²⁰ The continuous progress plan most nearly seems to meet these requirements.

Some Current Promotional Practices in Educationally Recognized Schools. Because of the absence of extensive recent information in the literature²¹ as to what schools actually are doing with respect to pupil progress, a questionnaire and interview inventory of practices in selected schools was undertaken by way of preparation for the present chapter. From data supplied by 35 school districts nationally recognized for their intelligently conceived educational programs, it was learned that leadership apparently is succeeding in achieving reasonably flexible and psychologically sound promotion practices.

In brief, something approximating agreement prevailed among the superintendents answering the questionnaire. They felt that children should neither repeat a grade nor be double-

¹⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 354 *et seq.* Among the researches on which Caswell and Foshay base their case are those by Akridge, Keyes, Klene and Branson, Grace, Cheyney, Templin, Francis, Hurlock, and Sandin. See chapter references for citations.

²⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 380.

²¹ A notable exception: Fred E. Harris, *Three Persistent Educational Problems: Grading, Promoting, and Reporting to Parents*, Bulletin of the Bureau of School Service, 26:1 (Lexington, University of Kentucky, September, 1953).

promoted, except under the most unusual circumstances.²² Evidently, the actual practices in the schools surveyed were in accord with the opinion these men expressed, since the modal (most frequent) percentage of children who were either accelerated or retarded was but one per cent. Five out of every seven of the educational leaders favored a promotion policy which, as personal interviews subsequently substantiated, was similar to the concept of continuous progress described above.

The child's *social maturity* was the element which 28 of the 35 superintendents deemed most important in reaching decisions as to whether he should be accelerated or permitted to drop behind his present group of schoolmates. The fact that no more than 5 per cent of the children were retarded at the end of grade 3 in any school in the sample, and that but one youngster in 100 had been double-promoted, lent credence to the conclusion that some of the distinguished school systems in the United States are shaping their promotion policies in ways which research suggests are best for elementary and junior high school children.

Goodlad's²³ review of theory and research in the realm of promotion policies supports the conclusion that the ably led schools whose policies are mentioned above are accepting and applying procedures suggested by research. Following this careful review Goodlad makes recommendations which the 35 schools seem to have accepted in practice:

- (1) Each child should be considered individually rather than in the light of system-wide policy. When an affirmative answer, based on fact rather than opinion, cannot be given to the question, "Is non-promotion likely to favor the all-round development of this child?" then the child should be promoted to the next grade.
- (2) Teachers should adopt a broad, factual basis for making their decisions. Facts related only to achievement and in-

²² Harold G. Shane, "Promotion Practices Follow Psychological Principles," *The Nation's Schools*, 49:59-60, June, 1952. (Comments which follow are also drawn from this article.)

²³ John Goodlad, "Research and Theory Regarding Promotion and Non-promotion," *The Elementary School Journal*, 53:150-155, November, 1952.

telligence are not sufficient; nor is the division of a limited body of information into more categories adequate. Needed are facts related to all phases of human growth and development, collected from a wide range of sources throughout the year rather than during the last few weeks of the school term, and analyzed in relation to sound principles of child growth and development.

- (3) Instructional needs of the pupil should take precedence over matters of administrative expediency in dealing with questions involving promotion and non-promotion. Determining and dealing with cause and effect are infinitely more important educational matters than making decisions regarding the immediate act of detaining or promoting. School personnel must examine the curriculum out of which failure grows and is being perpetuated. Matters of school classification are likely to emerge as by-products rather than as ends in themselves.²⁴

RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN GROUPING AND PROMOTION POLICIES

Within the ranks of creative leadership there apparently is growing insight into the fact the psychologically desirable promotion policies and intelligent grouping are interdependent.²⁵ Administrators, in planning changes in school administration with the staff, will therefore need to consider promotion and grouping as two phases of the same problem.

How Grouping Policies Influence Promotion Practices. It is apparent that the school organized on the basis of conventional grades will face the severest challenge in introducing reasonably flexible promotion policies. Even though the staff and leader adopt a more humane policy than that of academic achievement as the most important basis for promotion, it is difficult to devise a means by which they may propose the retention of a child in his present grade and avoid the interpretation by both child and parents of "failure." Although

²⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 154.

²⁵ For a thorough treatment of this topic, cf. Mary C. Petty, *Intraclass Grouping in the Elementary School* (Austin, University of Texas Press, Publication 5313, July 1, 1953).

teachers consider the plan as an honest attempt to extend the child's opportunity to grow in an educational context that is more encouraging, many parents and children may regard it as merely a change in nomenclature.

The grouping procedures and organization suggested in Chapter Ten may help to bring about improvements with respect to promotion. When children are grouped in an ungraded primary unit, the decision as to how long an individual will remain therein is largely determined by the teacher's professional judgment, growing out of an objective study of each child. If the primary unit normally spans a three-year range in age, a few children might conceivably be recommended for advancement to the intermediate unit at the end of two years; others could profitably remain in the unit for up to four years. The average length of time would ordinarily be three years. If parents and teachers work together in studying the child, it should begin to be understood by all parties concerned that there is no automatic assurance that *all* children will be advanced at the end of three years, thus avoiding the frustration and emotional upset frequently accompanying failure to be promoted.

It should be clear that attainment of the major advantages of a continuous progress approach depends upon the consistent organization of the school from kindergarten through at least the eighth or ninth grade. Beyond the kindergarten three units might well be organized for the guided progress of children: a primary unit (ages 6-8), an intermediate unit (ages 9-11), and a junior high school problems-type core unit (ages 12-14). Each of these units ordinarily would occupy the time of an individual child for three years, and he would complete the program in nine years. However, the slow maturing child might be expected to remain in one or more of the units for a longer period of time, say from 10 to 12 years. There is some risk involved in mentioning specific time schedules for such a program because there may be some administrators, teachers, and parents who confuse an illustration with a pattern. The suggestions are given as examples. The "right" approach is one tailored to each unique situation.

There seems to be no reason why the ungraded unit organization cannot be used as conveniently in a subject matter centered school as in any other. Thus, subject matter standards could be devised for the *units*, the completion of which would constitute justification for promotion. The slow learner would then face the necessity of greeting failure once in every three years. While this would be a distinct advantage over the present system, *it would violate the basic premise on which the unit organization is based.* The longer time span of the unit organization has virtue primarily as a means of assisting the individual child to make progress in *total growth*, according to his highly personal developmental pattern. The teacher is aided in studying the child by the greater length of time he is in the teacher's care and therefore can make better judgments concerning what is best for the child.

Organization of the junior high school on the basis of a core consisting of broad units of work (whether pre-planned or teacher-pupil planned) has a bearing on promotion policies.²⁶ One of the most puzzling problems facing teachers of adolescents is that of the greatly pronounced variations found in the patterns of growth during puberty. It is an established and easily observable fact that girls tend to reach puberty earlier than boys, thus creating situations which complicate both grouping and the selection of areas of study for the learners. The teacher at this level is very much in need of time and opportunity to study the individuals in his group. The core organization provides him with a chance to work with students for a longer period of time. This facilitates adjustments in grouping, promotions, and the social group structure to promote optimal learning and growth.

THE CHANGING REPORT CARD

There is little evidence as to when records of pupil progress

²⁶ For precise statements describing the six interpretations of the term "core," cf. Harold Alberty, *Reorganizing the High School Curriculum* (Revised Edition, New York, The Macmillan Co., 1953), pp. 167-168.

began systematically to be kept. According to Heck²⁷ various school logs or registers were in use in Horace Mann's day, since he collected them from various Massachusetts districts in order to prepare a state attendance roster. When reports to parents were begun is difficult to determine. Some type of informal oral or written reports almost certainly were made even in earliest times to assure parents that their children were making progress.

Since 1900 there have been repeated investigations of marking systems and reports, as documented by Odell's²⁸ bibliography of such inquiries up to 1929, and Gray's²⁹ list of 25 studies which were reported in 1939-1940. The writers of the present book reviewed writings pertaining to reports to parents for the period 1948-1953 and found that a great deal had been written in a quantitative sense during this period. A random sampling of 16 articles and dissertations during this period failed, however, to reveal any distinctly new ideas or trends which had not at least been discussed by school people as far back as the 1930's.³⁰

Current Reporting Practices. The use of percentage grades or alphabetical symbols, such as A-B-C, was almost universally accepted in the 1920's. While percentage grades now are exceedingly rare in the elementary and junior high schools, alphabetical grades remain common. In one of the writer's classes a student gathered report cards from the 15 largest cities in the middle western state of which he was a resident. Fourteen of the 15, it developed, used alphabetical grades at the elementary school level during 1950-1951.

Nonetheless, there is some basis for stating that personal letters written to parents by the teacher and parent-teacher con-

²⁷ Arch O. Heck, *A Study of Child-Accounting Records* (Columbus, The Ohio State University Bureau of Educational Research, 1925). Monograph No. 2.

²⁸ C. W. Odell, *A Selected Annotated Bibliography Dealing with Examinations and School Marks* (Urbana, Bureau of Educational Research, University of Illinois, 1929). Bulletin No. 43.

²⁹ Ruth A. Gray, "Marks and Marking," *Bibliography of Research Studies in Education* (Washington, D. C., U. S. Office of Education, 1941). Bulletin No. 5.

³⁰ Selected references to writings on reporting progress to parents 1948-1953 appear in the chapter bibliography.

ferences are finding acceptance. In the 35 educationally recognized school systems to which reference has been made above,³¹ only one district relied exclusively on A-B-C type marks, and only one used such grades supplemented by notes to parents. The overwhelming majority used one of the following methods: (1) A-B-C grades, conferences, and letters written by teachers, (2) parent conferences only, (3) A-B-C grades and conferences, or (4) written notes plus conferences.³² It can be concluded that a number of schools are seeking more varied means of communicating with parents than are provided by abstract symbols.

What Do Parents Want to Know About Their Children? One of the functions of leadership involved in the process of improving reporting on pupil progress is the improvement of the techniques of communication. A second function is that of helping teachers determine what it is that parents *really* want to know about their children.

To judge by some of the criticism of public schools which appear from time to time,³³ many parents are clamoring for more attention to academic work and presumably wish for report cards which are based upon competitive grades. Actually, something very like the reverse of this attitude may be the rule, at least in some communities.

In a Chicago suburb approximately 700 parents were asked what they wanted to know about their children of elementary school age, and about the schools which served them. The largest single group of queries was found to be concerned with the personal-social progress the boys and girls were making.³⁴ Nearly half (44 per cent) fell into this category, while but 38 per cent were concerned with the mastery of subject matter. The smallest group of questions (18 per cent) was concerned

³¹ Harold G. Shane, "Promotion Practices Follow Psychological Principles," *op. cit.*, p. 59.

³² The survey also revealed that practices varied from kindergarten through junior high school within a given system. Conferences with parents were most common in the kindergarten-primary years, with notes to parents and alphabetical grades more often used in grade 4 and above. About one-third of the schools varied their practices from one level to another.

³³ Cf. Chapter Six, *supra*, pp. 181-192.

³⁴ From data in the writers' files obtained in February, 1952.

with general school policies. While the sample was a small one, the tabulations suggest that many mothers and fathers are more interested in their children's progress toward being well-rounded human beings than they are in their academic achievement. One inference that can be made is that reporting to parents should involve more than a mere summary of scores copied from a grade book.

While parents want more information about their children than can be transmitted by an alphabetical symbol, a great many seem to hold tenaciously to the desire to know how their child is doing in comparison with his classmates. Capehart³⁵ reports a rather healthy majority of parents who desire a conference (89.6 per cent), but a rather substantial minority reported a desire for letter grades in addition (27.5 per cent). On the other hand, McAllister³⁶ indicates that, while parents will generally accept a substitution of "S" and "U" type symbols for A-B-C (68 per cent), these parents overwhelmingly insisted that the conference not be used as a replacement for the report card (80 per cent). The findings of Morris,³⁷ and Muellen³⁸ appear to substantiate these last results.

It would seem from available evidence that parents show a definite disposition to approve of certain changes in the reporting system, but tend to want such innovations to retain certain familiar elements. A parent-teacher conference, in other words, is not entirely satisfactory unless it (or supplementary written reports) provides specific analyses of how well the child is doing in subject matter areas. Educational leaders, one may conclude, will need to recognize that modifications in reporting are accepted by parents if they are evolutionary rather than revolutionary in nature. The encouraging fact is that so many parents who have been invited to share in discussion of improved report-

³⁵ Bertis E. Capehart, "Reports to Parents," *The Nation's Schools*, 50:43-47, December, 1952.

³⁶ Anne Reid McAllister, "A Study of Parent Attitudes Toward Newer Practices in Pupil Progress Reporting," *Teachers College Journal*, 22:68-69ff., January, 1951.

³⁷ Lucile Morris, "Evaluating and Reporting Pupil Progress," *Elementary School Journal*, 53:144-149, November, 1952.

³⁸ T. K. Muellen, "An Experiment in Reporting Pupil Progress," *Elementary School Journal*, 52:42-44, September, 1951.

ing practices show a clear willingness to accept reasonable modifications in policies.

SOME PROPOSALS FOR STRENGTHENING PUPIL PROGRESS REPORTS

If the statement made at the beginning of this chapter is accepted as true—that promotion and reporting practices are among the main ingredients in effective home-school relations—then educational leadership has strong motivation to devise better means of interpreting and communicating pupil progress in ways which are deemed acceptable and desirable by the community. It may very well be that some of the current criticisms of the schools are caused by misunderstandings arising out of ill-conceived or too-hasty changes in the reporting forms which have been familiar to parents. This seems all the more likely if changes were made without consulting mothers and fathers. Conversely, to wait until parents are goaded to initiate a movement for change is to default on professional responsibility.

Up to the present, progress in reporting has been confined largely to making changes in minor aspects of the report card—from percentage marks, through A-B-C, to E-G-F-P, or S-U (with tendencies to devote an increasing amount of space to remarks by the teacher). Several ideas for “next steps” toward more insightful and accurate reporting will be explored below.

Letters and Conferences as Means to Improved Communication with Parents. In recent years there has been a tendency for teachers in a growing minority of schools to use several written paragraphs as an improvement over alphabetical symbols in informing parents about their children. In such schools considerable use has been made of the informal letter in which the teacher attempted to *describe* the child's progress to the parent. Teachers, not uniformly skilled in the use of the written word, sometimes were inveigled into the practice by administrators who promulgated the use of parent letters without sufficient preliminary preparation of either the writer or the recipient, and have committed some unavoidable blunders. Al-

Barandon, in *The Chicago Tribune*, has some gentle fun at the expense of teachers who resort to cliches in writing parent letters and sometimes succeed in obscuring meaning.

*Teacher Talk*³⁹

by Al Barandon

Parents, are you bewildered by those comments the teacher writes on your youngster's report card? With the help of college professors and the school janitor, I succeeded in translating them. Following are typical comments and their translation:

Michael does not socialize well.

This means Mike is always beating some other kid's brains out.

John is progressing very well for him.

Don't feel so happy, Pappy—this means Johnny is a dope. He's 12 years old and has just learned 2 and 2 make 4, which, as teacher points out, is progress—for him.

Frank's personality evidences a lack of social integration.

This is a nice way of saying Frank is a stinker.

Oscar shows a regrettable lack of self-control.

This means Oscar doesn't do what teacher wants. Self-control means how much control the teacher has over Oscar.

Henry seems emotionally immature for the first grade.

Get out little Hank's birth certificate, Mother—this means that teacher thinks you lied about his age to get him in school.

Jerome participates very fully in class discussions.

This may be good or bad. It means that Jerry never shuts his big yap. Perhaps he'll grow up to be a salesman.

James is an individualist.

Another nice way of saying James is a trouble maker.

David does not harmonize well with his peer group.

This has nothing to do with his voice. Teacher means that he can't get along with his classmates. Or, everybody in the class is out of step with Davey boy.

Richard's work indicates a lack of mastery over the upper ranges of the fundamental combinations necessary for arithmetical computation.

Don't rush to a psychiatrist, just teach Dick his 7, 8, and 9 tables—he doesn't know them.

³⁹ Al Barandon, "Teacher Talk," *The Chicago Tribune*, July 13, 1952.

Nathan's lack of muscular coordination prevents him from participating fully in body-building activities.

Cut down on the calories, Mom—Nat's too fat to play games.

Robert is a well-adjusted, wholesomely integrated individual.

Jackpot, brother, you're in. Bobby is teacher's pet!

If teachers are to succeed in communicating intelligibly with parents it is necessary that they have some help in understanding the techniques of "readable writing."⁴⁰ Some teachers who are able to express themselves quite adequately under ordinary circumstances abandon such skills in a welter of pedaguese when talking or writing to parents about pupil progress. Other teachers may err by retreating to the use of too-simple language of the sort they use with younger children. In the first instance they frequently fail to communicate precise meaning; in the second they may insult the intelligence of the parents.

A communicable report should:

- (1) Be written in simple, "everyday" English, and avoid unusual technical words, educational jargon, or flowery verbal embroidery.
- (2) Tell the parent something it is important for him to know: the child's progress in his several areas of growth, his special achievements, and the difficulties or successes he may be having socially or intellectually.
- (3) Make recommendations and/or suggestions of ways in which the parent can help to strengthen, speed up, or redirect his child's progress.
- (4) Avoid sweeping or general judgments about the child. Statements should be documented as objectively as possible.
- (5) Not purport to be so conclusive that it encourages the parent to think he has learned *all* there is to know about the child's progress in school.

With respect to point five, if the written report to parents is

⁴⁰ A suitable handbook for helping teachers to write understandable reports is Rudolph Flesch's *The Art of Readable Writing* (New York, Harper and Brothers, 1949).

so effective in satisfying the parents' curiosity that no interest is left to encourage them to come to school, the teacher has lost a good opportunity further to improve his communication with them through follow-up conferences. While the well-written report may satisfy the *parent*, it cannot hope to transmit *all* that might be said in a subsequent oral discussion. There is no way by which the teacher can know if the parent is reading into the communication the meanings placed there, and the parent is denied the possibility of interchange of information with the teacher that might serve to clear up many potential misunderstandings.⁴¹

The Wheaton, Illinois, Public Schools have published a set of three booklets which serve very well to illustrate both the nature and the value of a carefully planned approach to effective reporting to parents.⁴² One of these is a general booklet, *Your Child and Your School* (see Figure 16), which includes three brief paragraphs setting forth a point of view regarding reporting. This short statement is enormously strengthened by the *Parents' Handbook on Reporting Procedures* which in refreshingly simple but precise language deals with eight points: (1) What is a parent conference? (2) Why do we report to parents? (3) Who will take part in the conference? (4) How and when do we report to parents? (5) Interpretation of evaluation procedures. (6) What is the parent's part? (7) What is the teacher's part? and (8) Recognized ways of helping your child at home.

The *Teacher's Handbook for Parent-Teacher Conferences*, pictured on page 340, contains 11 pages, varied in size and color for handy reference, each filled with information of use to even the more seasoned teacher as he prepares to meet mothers and fathers. The several headings shown in the photograph indicate the variety of the advice and guidance the booklet offers. Also included are pictures of The Progress Re-

⁴¹ See illustrations of written reports on pp. 344, 345 and 349.

⁴² Thanks are due Dr. Darrell R. Blodgett, Superintendent, for providing the materials from the Wheaton Public Schools which are illustrated. They are in use at this writing, 1953-1954.

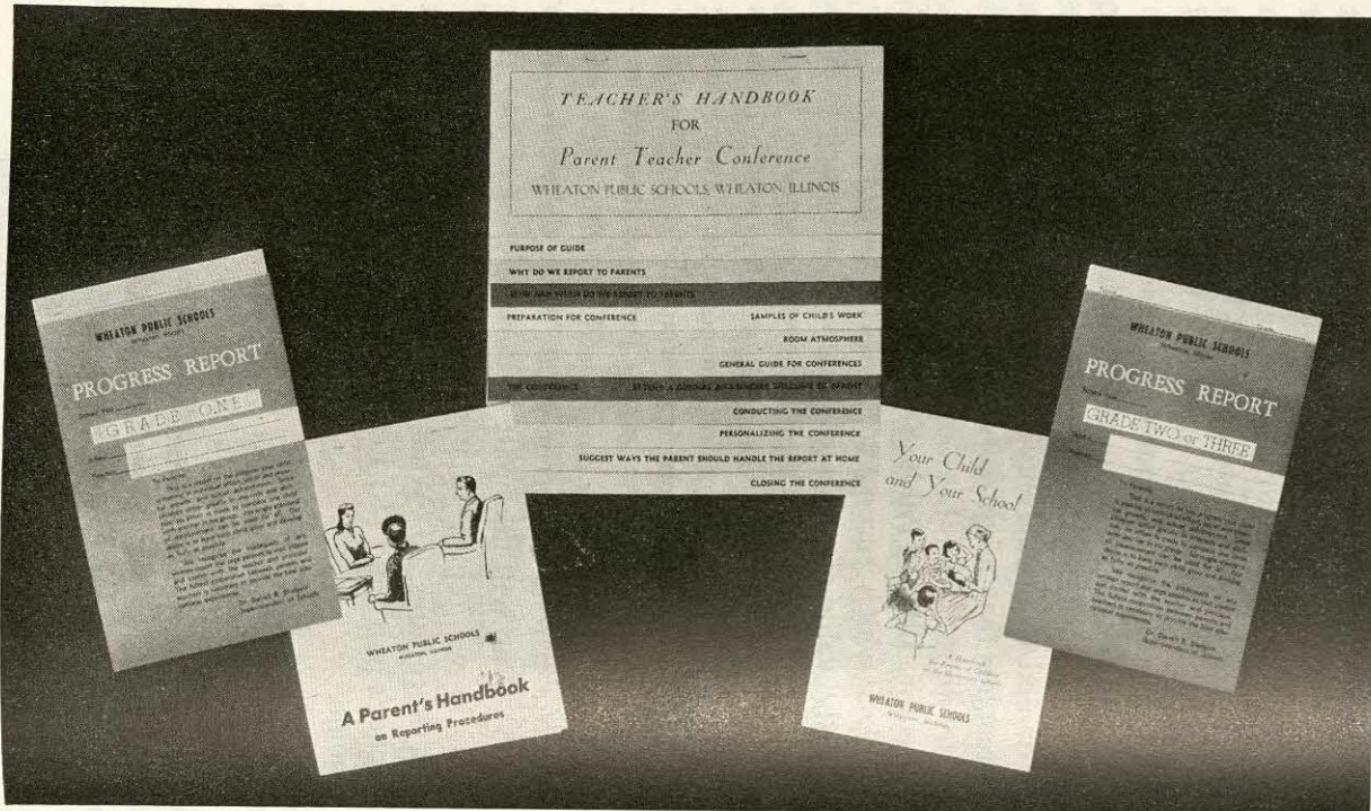


FIG. 16. A set of materials developed to interpret and improve pupil progress reports.
—Courtesy of the Wheaton, Illinois, Public Schools

port for grades 1, 2, and 3. This is presented to and shared with the parent at the time of the conference.

The Wheaton materials indicate how the parent-teacher conference can be made an important resource in creating effective home-school relations. Here the interactive effects of true communication can be gained. The teacher is able to report to the parent in such a way that he can increase the likelihood that the parent understands his meaning. In turn, the parent has an opportunity to ask questions for clarification and expansion. The teacher may show the parent examples of the work the child is doing, as suggested in the Wheaton *Handbook*, and discuss various problems involved in learning. The classroom, in which the conference may take place, is itself an asset in explaining the work going on. Examples of children's work, artfully displayed, can serve as an important context which will give meaning to and an understanding of the work of the individual child.

There are numerous considerations to be observed in conducting well-run conferences. Among the most important are these:

- (1) Conferences should be held at the convenience of both teacher and parent. This may be insured by a previous agreement on which time is best. The decision concerning time might conceivably also determine place.
- (2) Preferably, conferences should be held in the school, for the reasons stated above. This is the teacher's environment and presents an advantageous setting for the interpretation of school activities.⁴³
- (3) It is vitally important that parents be made warmly welcome. The conference might well begin with light refreshments, "small talk," or both as a means of making the parent feel at ease.
- (4) Discussion with the parent should be conducted on a level of conversational English, and educational jargon kept to a

⁴³ James L. Hymes prefers the conference held in the home in order to make the parent feel more at ease, but the authors believe the professional advantages of the school-held conference outweigh this consideration. Cf. his *Effective Home-School Relations* (New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1953), pp. 147-148.

- minimum. The objective should be to *inform* and not to *impress*.
- (5) Information about the child's progress should be given in as objective a fashion as possible. Preferably, actual illustrations of the child's work should be available for study.
 - (6) Ample opportunity should be given for the parent to express his impressions of and ambitions for his child. Teachers can obtain valuable insights into the influences affecting the child from this contact.
 - (7) Efforts should be made to insure that the parent leaves the conference with a feeling of having gained *specific* and *accurate* knowledge of his child's progress and development. Dissatisfactions breed on indefiniteness which is likely to stiffen parental resistance to the change from written reports to the face-to-face conference.
 - (8) Parents have the right to expect that the oral exchange of information in the conference will be formalized in a written summary, at least after the first year or two of school. The oral conference should attempt less to *replace* the written report than to *supplement* it.

The "Pupil Progress Chart" as a Proposed Aid in Reporting to Parents. It is easy to comment disparagingly on the dearth of imaginative ideas which promise to improve reporting. It is more difficult to make specific proposals for improving the process. Nevertheless, as a means of stimulating thought and discussion, the attempt is made here to propose a type of reporting instrument which may help to eliminate some of the common flaws in reporting practices based on the letter and/or conference.

These flaws include:

- (1) The fact that some teachers cannot seem to avoid the oral or written cliches and ambiguities of the sort ridiculed in Al Barandon's "Teacher Talk." (Cf. p. 337.)
- (2) The probability that many parents are dissatisfied with reporting which fails to indicate whether a child is being appraised by criteria chosen for the individual, for the group, or on national achievement norms for subject matter fields with respect to which comment is made.

- (3) The danger that parents and teachers may not understand one another in conferences and yet remain unaware of this failure to communicate.
- (4) The danger of attempting to conduct school business on the basis of conversations unsupported by any official records shared by teacher and parent.
- (5) The difficulty of not only keeping the parent informed of the *current status* of the child's achievement, but of presenting this information in a *cumulative form* which is indicative of trends.

To avoid some of the difficulties above a "Pupil Progress Report"—a personal, social, academic growth diagram—is suggested (see Figure 17). This chart, as shown in the accompanying illustration, is designed to help both parents and teachers to visualize the nature and trends of a given child's progress toward maturity. It is proposed that it be prepared in the form of a booklet as shown on page 349, Figure 19.

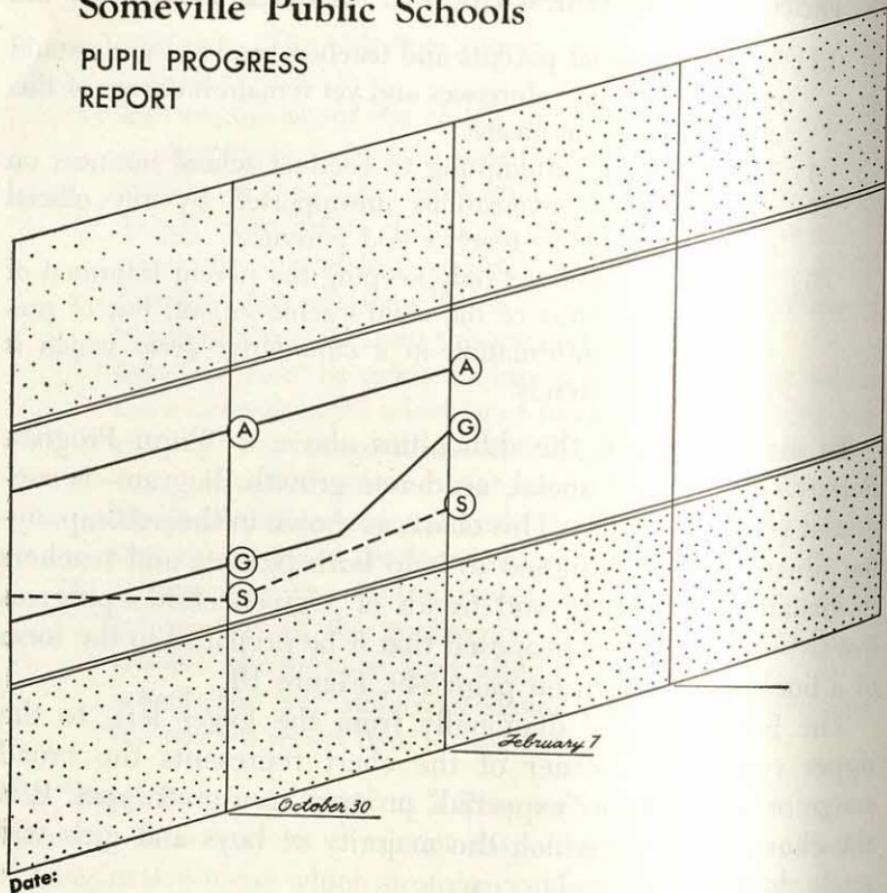
The band running diagonally from the lower left- to the upper right-hand corner of the chart represents the broad range of "normal" or "expected" progress in a given year. It is the channel within which the majority of boys and girls will move during a particular year.

On the chart, as illustrated, it is proposed that the teacher record three or four times annually his best professional *estimate* of the child's progress in three respects: (1) An appraisal of the child's ability or central tendency with respect to personal endowment and resources (in which apparent intelligence is only *one* ingredient), (2) an appraisal of his social development, and (3) an appraisal of his general academic ability (the central tendency of his achievement in the various areas of content recognized in the curriculum at his grade level).

There may be those who will object to diagramming a child's progress lest it result in the same invidious comparisons and pressures associated with A-B-C type grades. However, it should be kept in mind that the wide channel representing "normal" progress is of sufficient breadth to permit recognition

Someville Public Schools

PUPIL PROGRESS REPORT



Explanation of the pupil progress diagram. Three times each year you will receive this Pupil Progress Report which was prepared to assist us in helping you to understand Mike's progress in grade four. The broad white band in the middle of the diagram represents the range of normal progress made by most children in this grade. When you receive this booklet at each of our parent-teacher conferences you will find on the diagram our professional estimate of your child's growth with respect to *social development, ability, and general academic standing*.

The symbol (S) represents Social development (how your child gets along with others). (A) stands for Ability (your child's present potentiality for successful work of this level). (G) represents the General level of achievement he has reached in his work. The placement of these symbols is interpreted in the accompanying statement.

1/1 Ruth M. Williams
Teacher

FIG. 17. Report which might be used to portray and interpret pupil progress at mid-year conference.

of the fact that normal children fall within a broad range socially, intellectually, and achievement-wise during any given year. Furthermore, *it is assumed that the diagram will be given added meaning by a series of cumulatively written interpretations made by the teacher*, and that the diagram will, when-

Someville Public Schools

PUPIL PROGRESS REPORT

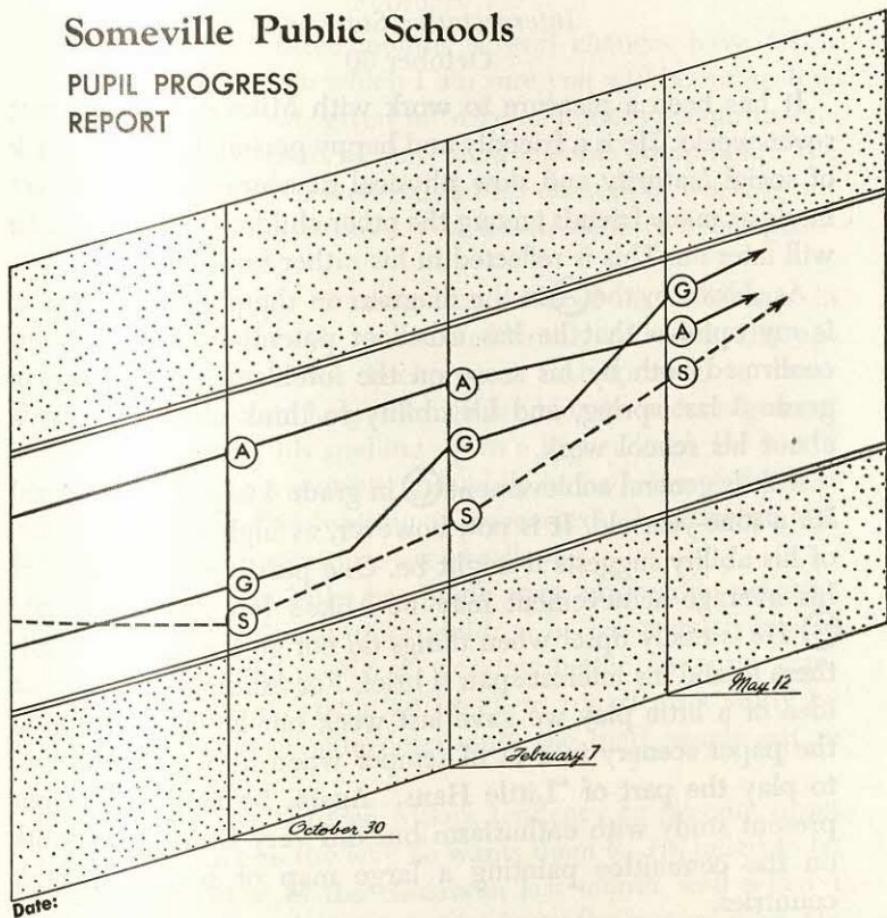


FIG. 18. A proposed report for use in depicting and interpreting pupil progress to parents (May report).

ever possible, *be shared with parents at a personal conference rather than merely sent to the home*.

In other words, the diagram or chart may be construed to be a device for lending organization, substance, and coherence either to letter-type reports or to parent conferences, or both. Figure 18 presents the progress chart as it might appear at the

end of grade 4 for the child whose status is examined. Note how the teacher has phrased three interpretative statements to accompany the diagram at three intervals: October 30, February 7, and May 12. Presumably these would be written in the report booklet as shown on page 349 in Figure 19.

Interpretative Statement

October 30

It has been a pleasure to work with Mike during the past seven weeks. He is a friendly and happy person, but due to lack of social maturity and slow physical development, he has not made as many friends among the other children as I am sure he will later on. This is reflected in his rather low **(S)** score.

As shown by the **(A)** in the diagram on the preceding page, it is my opinion that he has excellent potential ability. This is confirmed both by his score on the intelligence test given in grade 3 last spring, and his ability to think clearly and well about his school work.

Mike's general achievement **(G)** in grade 4 is perfectly normal for a nine-year-old. It is not, however, as high as our estimate of his ability suggests it might be. One possible explanation of his average achievement may be Mike's low social maturity **(S)**. He is easily upset when things do not go the way he wants them to and his interest span is brief. For example, he liked the idea of a little play we gave last week but later tore some of the paper scenery in a fit of temper when he was not chosen to play the part of "Little Hans." Again, he helped plan our present study with enthusiasm but did very little actual work on the committee painting a large map of houses in other countries.

In language Mike is reasonably successful but he is still unable to control his small muscles well enough to write clearly for more than two or three lines. His spelling is quite good except where he is in a hurry. He has an exceptional vocabulary.

Arithmetic is a subject on which we must spend considerable time. At present he is ill-at-ease when we do work in short division and tends to make errors.

I hope I will have additional opportunities to sit down with you and discuss what we are planning to do to help Mike with his work. Please return this booklet in a few days after you

have had time to study it at home and write any comments you care to make on the back page.

/s/ Ruth M. Williams

Teacher

Interpretative Statement

February 7

During the past three months several changes have taken place in Mike's work in which I am sure you will be interested.

A recent ability test, given to Mike in January, confirms our original judgment that he has good mental equipment. We should have no need to worry about his chances of working out some of the academic problems on which we have been spending considerable time.

You will be happy to know that some of his difficulties in arithmetic already have been considerably reduced. His apparently excellent home background is beginning to show through and you have helped by giving him the encouragement he needed to bring his spelling up to a higher level. He is still working hard on his writing, and while he isn't one of the best writers as far as handwriting is concerned, the content and language of his compositions are excellent.

Probably because Mike has made some observable progress in his relations with the other children he has a much keener interest in his studies. He is working better on pupil committees, and recently made an excellent report on a study he had made of how climate determines the food people eat in different countries.

We are working hard on Mike's tendency to become upset when things don't go the way he wants them to. He failed to be elected to an office in the classroom last month, and when I talked with him he admitted that he knew the reasons why. He knows that he has a tendency to be "bossy" with the other children, and that they don't like it.

I am sure that the good talk you and I had about Mike last December has helped materially to speed up his progress. It is apparent that you are working right along with us in helping Mike to become even more the kind of person we both wish him to be.

/s/ Ruth M. Williams

Teacher

Interpretative Statement

May 12

Our latest check on Mike's basic ability shows that we may have placed our earlier estimates a bit too high, although the difference is slight and no one test is infallible. Certainly, there is no reason to worry, since his ability remains above the average.

We are pleased with his general achievement over the past few months. Mike has really shown remarkable improvement in solving some of his learning problems. In reading, language development, spelling, and handwriting, his present level of achievement identifies him as one of our more promising students. His performance in arithmetic is better, too.

In view of the general academic growth in schoolwork, we can afford to devote even more time and attention to Mike's social development. You have probably noticed that he has not grown very rapidly this year and, while his height and weight are not unusual for his age, some of the other children have made a rapid spurt in growth. This has made Mike, I am sure, all the more conscious of his relatively small size. He continues to try to compensate for this by being more positive in his statements to other children than is sometimes wise. The hopeful sign is that Mike is well aware of his failing, and is working to correct it.

I have already talked to his teacher for next year and she is planning on carrying on where you and I leave off. I am confident that Mike can look forward to increasing successes in fifth grade next year.

Since this is the final progress report for this year you need not return this booklet.

/s/ Ruth M. Williams

Teacher

Because the person-to-person contact is a meaningful and sometimes indispensable supplement to written reports, the use of the diagram and written commentary are recommended for use as a part of a conference program, during which the report booklet acts as a starting point. To assist the reader to visualize such a booklet Figure 19 has been prepared. Presumably, the

outside cover would provide space for attendance data, the pupil's name, grade level, and similar information frequently included in reports to parents. Space might be reserved on the back outside cover for parents' comments.

Variations of the "Progress Diagram" idea. The present discussion, as was originally noted, was not undertaken to tell administrators and teachers how to report pupil progress in

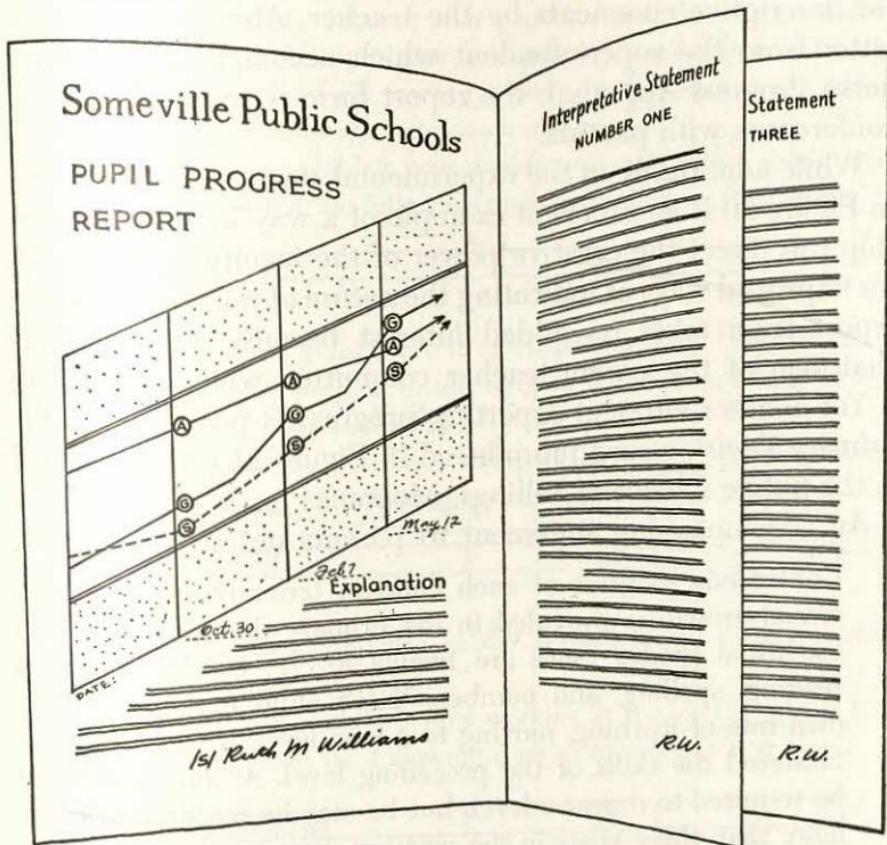


FIG. 19. General format of Pupil Progress Report and interpretative statements for use during parent conferences.

their unique situations, but to *illustrate* that imagination should be applied to the task of communicating with parents. The idea of the diagram is "good" only insofar as leadership can discern ways of fitting it into particular situations.

An educationally interesting variation of the diagram was, for instance, introduced at certain grade levels in the Win-

netka, Illinois, Public Schools in 1953-1954. As Figure 20 shows, a type of bar graph is shaded by the teacher to indicate the child's relative standing in language and number skills at a given grade level—in this instance in grade 4.

Note that the parents' opportunity to *visualize* his child's scholastic status is simply and effectively increased without the use of A-B-C or S-U type symbols and that provision is made for descriptive comments by the teacher. Also, as noted in a letter from the superintendent which accompanies the Winnetka Progress Appraisal, the report form is supplemented by conferences with parents.

While admittedly in the experimental stage, the form shown in Figure 20 is an excellent example of a way in which leadership can direct the creative power of the faculty in the search for improved ways of indicating the nature of pupil growth. The report form takes on added interest because a parent was chairman of the parent-teacher committee which devised it.

Yet another effort at reporting progress is portrayed in the Primary Division card reproduced in Figure 21 and developed in the public schools of Billings, Montana.

An accompanying statement to parents notes in part that:

Continuous progress of each child in terms of his own individual growth is provided in the primary division. Instead of the usual grades there are twelve levels of achievement in reading, spelling, and numbers. Each child progresses at his own rate of learning, moving to a new level as soon as he has mastered the skills of the preceding level. A child will never be required to repeat a level, but he may be required to spend more than three years in the primary department.

. . . At best any such brief report can present only a part of the record. For a more complete report you are invited to confer with the teacher and principal. . . .

EFFECTIVE REPORTING AND THE STRUCTURE OF SCHOOL ORGANIZATION

As pointed out earlier, in the discussion of good grouping for instruction and sound promotion policies, the nature of school organization adopted by the administration and faculty

Winnetka Public Schools
PROGRESS APPRAISAL

Name Ann Gray Grade 4 Quarter 1st

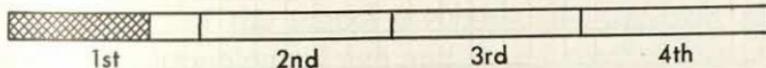
Teacher Patricia Mills Days Absent 6 Date November 6

(Spaces below may be used for comments to supplement information shown by graphs)

READING: Ann is reading (below) (at) (above) the 4th grade level. The amount of reading on which (s)he has reported is (below) (at) (above) that expected for (his) (her) ability.

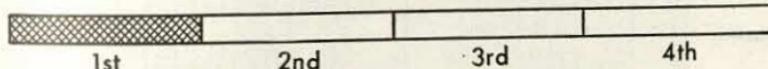
Ann's reading ability is at a level where special help is not necessary. On days when book reading is done by the group in our room I am making a continued effort to encourage her.

In LANGUAGE, your child is now working at the 4th grade level, and has completed the following quarter of work at that level:



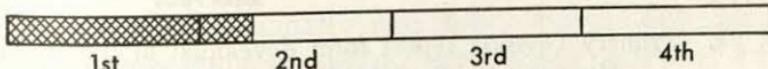
Ann has shown great interest in creative writing. The amount of time spent to good purpose in this activity accounts for the fact that she has not quite completed other language work.

In SPELLING, your child is now working at the 4th grade level, and has completed the following quarter of work at that level:



Ann is working diligently on her spelling with excellent results. Improvement here is very good.

In ARITHMETIC, your child is now working at the 4th grade level, and has completed the following quarter of work at that level:



Ann shows a first-rate understanding of number concepts and seems to enjoy her work.

GENERAL COMMENTS:

Ann is clearly beginning to develop good work habits. Her creative ability, attitudes, and general social growth are thoroughly satisfactory and will be appraised in a later report.

Note to Parents: You might wish to save each of the Appraisal sheets received during the year in order to have them available for comparison of progress made between reporting periods.

FIG. 20. "Report graph" from the Winnetka, Illinois, Public Schools.
(Reproduced by permission of Supt. Gilbert S. Willey.)

is an important factor in determining what plans will work successfully. School organization has an equally important bearing on effective reporting of pupil progress.

Name _____												Year: 1952-1953							
Primary Division												Teacher _____							
Report Period 1 2 3 4 5 6	Works Well With Others	Self Dependent	Use of Time	Behavior	Health and Physical Ed.	Language Usage	Community Study	Science	Handwriting	Music	Art	Days Present	Days Absent	Times Tardy	Height	Weight	Note Enclosed	Conference Desired	Conference Held (date)
	A check (✓) indicates satisfactory work. A "C" refers to a comment on the card.																		
	Signature of Parent or Guardian																		

Pupil's Placement Next Year

Principal

The check (✓) on this chart will help the parent determine the child's progress. The chart gives the steps of development in reading, spelling and numbers. Formal spelling instruction does not start until the second year. The first check on the spelling chart will be Level 5.

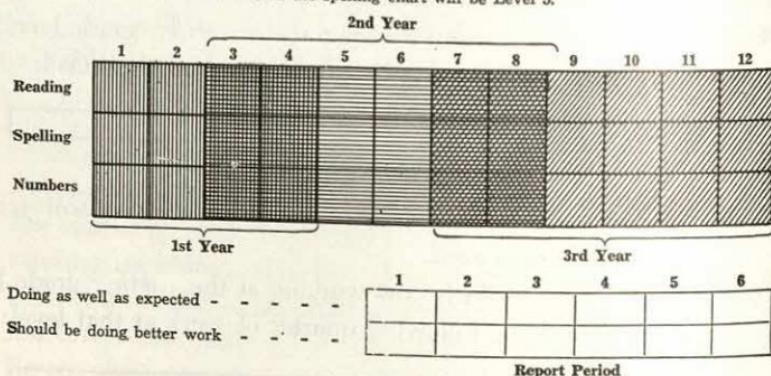


FIG. 21. Primary Division report form developed in the Billings, Montana, Public Schools, 1952-1953.

Modifying Organizational Structure for Better Reporting. Part of the difficulty encountered by teachers in making their reports to parents increasingly effective may be traced to the rigid structure of school organization. If the school insists upon an inflexible grade standard as the criterion for determining success in school, the teacher is largely restricted to making comments and judgments about a child's academic progress.

Any additional information (such as how well children are solving their social problems) may be appreciated by the parent but will have little to do with their "passing." As was pointed out earlier, some parents tend to consider a youngster's failure in school as a blot on the family escutcheon, an attitude which makes it reasonable to expect that their main concern is with passing. However, if the school is so organized that the child's progress in *all* areas of growth is used as the criteria for success (and "passing"), the teacher can enlarge his reports to include data and judgments which reflect progress toward maturity on a substantially broader front.

A narrow conception on the part of the administration with respect to the basis for success is frequently characterized by an organization of the school involving the grouping of children first by chronological age and then by achievement. The chance to extend the child's stay at the primary level is consequently limited, except as it risks the parental interpretation of "failure," with all of its attendant consequences. The grouping of children in more flexible organizations for learning as suggested in Chapter Ten would free the teacher from the necessity of restricting information shared with parents to statements dealing with academic success, and provide him with the opportunity to keep the parent informed concerning the child's whole development.

Proposed Reporting Procedures: Kindergarten Through Junior High School. If teachers are to improve their methods of reporting to parents, they must be aided by appropriate changes in the traditionally organized school day. The procedures for reporting to parents with heavy reliance on personal letters and conferences, as suggested above, is seriously limited by the time factor. It takes much more time to confer, to write personal letters, or to fill out meaningful charts than it does to insert a few alphabetical symbols into appropriate pigeonholes in the conventional report card. With 25 or 30 children in a class, personal interview-conferences with their parents can easily consume hundreds of hours.

Since the teacher is often already heavily burdened, this

time-energy factor is likely to present a prohibitively high psychological barrier to success. If improved reporting procedures are important enough to rate a high priority on the list of needed emphases in education, then they deserve the allocation of adequate time in which to carry them out. Educational leadership can assist teachers to find the time for this important activity. Local building principals often need to take action in proper ways to gain central office approval of some substantial changes in the organization of the school day.

While all school situations differ somewhat in ways great and small, and while the solution to the problem of time and organization needs to be worked out coöperatively by each school staff, certain general suggestions merit the consideration of every faculty. The following are offered as *examples* of the ways in which school organization and policies might be modified in order to remove some of the impediments to good pupil progress reporting.

(1) In the kindergarten, when children and parents are coming to school for the first time in the autumn, it is particularly important that proper rapport and understanding on the part of parents be achieved. Whatever time is necessary to effect good working relations at this point should be made available. A procedure which has worked well in some schools is that of postponing the beginning of kindergarten classes for a week or two beyond the date at which children begin to attend grade 1 and above. In this way, the kindergarten teacher is enabled to devote adequate time to orienting parents to the school program, and consequently to lay a firm foundation for subsequent parent relations. By deferring the official entrance date for kindergarteners by an entire week, time can be devoted to meeting parents and discussing with them the nature and purposes of the experiences designed for the children. This should be an excellent plan to follow for grade 1 in schools which do not have kindergartens.

(2) In all grades, or at least in the primary levels, it might be possible to arrange the school program during the first week of school so that children attend only half-days. The other

half-day might be devoted to individual parent conferences and general orientation activities. The only serious fault with this plan is the difficulty some parents with younger children encounter in arranging to be in school while their children are at home. The problem can be and has been met by coöperative parent action in taking turns "sitting" with the children of mothers whose turn it is to spend an hour with the teacher.

(3) Another possibility is that of scheduling parent conferences during a specific period of the day (2:30 to 3:30, for example) when the individual teacher can be freed from classroom assignments to meet parents, while the children normally in his charge are kept in school under the supervision of another teacher or a regularly assigned substitute.

(4) Reports to parents and parent conferences may be staggered so that the individual teacher undertakes to make only a few each week. This implies that there would be no set date for reporting (such as October 30) that would apply to all children. Nor would the teacher necessarily write reports or schedule conferences in some automatic (e.g., alphabetical) order. Rather, he would choose his sequence for reporting in terms of professional judgment and pupil need. For instance, it might well be that one child's parents would receive a report or a call for a conference six times during the year, while another child, with fewer or less severe problems, might be the object of but two reports and one conference.

(5) When classes are large (in excess of 25 to 30 children) some form of mid-year "Interim Progress Report" can be used. This is a printed card bearing a statement to the effect that the child is making satisfactory progress as indicated in an earlier report, and there is no need for a further report at this time. (See Figure 22.) This form would satisfy the general desire of parents to receive some assurance that "all is well," but would place no heavy writing assignment on the teacher where no critical need for a detailed mid-year report exists.

(6) At the junior high school level, the Pupil Progress Report can be modified to suit the changes in structural organization, if a departmental or core-type program is in operation.

When some form of the "core" organization, which conforms quite closely to the spirit of the unit organization of the classroom at the elementary school level, has been adopted, there will arise the likelihood that more members of the staff than the core teacher will be interested in contributing to the report. Teachers in special subject matter or activity fields, such as science or music, might, under these circumstances, send to the advisory or home-room teachers their observations and

Noville Public Schools
INTERIM PROGRESS REPORT

Date: February 12

Susan has continued to make progress which is consistent with the work reported in the letter you received earlier in the year. While a follow-up conference does not seem necessary at this time I shall be glad to talk with you at any time if you wish to make an appointment.

5
Grade

/s/ Ruth M. Williams
Teacher

FIG. 22. Interim Progress Report to be used in cases where no formal report is needed.⁴⁴

comments about the child. These could be summarized or used as received in the home-room teacher's master report. Or, if the staff thinks it advisable, it might be possible to devote separate sheets to the analyses of several different teachers, clip them together in a booklet, and arrange for the advisory teacher to summarize and interpret them either in an introductory note or person-to-person conferences with parents.

It should be re-emphasized at this point that the above suggestions are merely attempts to help educational workers to appreciate the ways in which it is possible to improvise, adapt, and adjust the structure of school organization in a continuing

⁴⁴ After Harold G. Shane and E. T. McSwain, *Evaluation and the Elementary Curriculum* (New York, Henry Holt and Co., 1951), p. 315.

effort to meet the problems of limited time and energy. Educational leadership can play an important part in the solution of such problems to the degree that the administrator himself has "creative blood in his veins" and generates through his enthusiasm and insights a kindred creative quality in teachers.

SUMMARY

Much has been written about the various ways in which children's progress through school can best be guided, and how this progress can be shared with parents. Unfortunately, the mere quantity of suggestions and the presence of good intentions do not insure solutions. As one writer with a gift for vivid phrases has commented, a paradox of our era is the fact that as means "of communication [have] increased in numbers and power, communication has declined." Sadly he concludes that, "Mutual intelligibility is probably a rarer phenomenon now than at any time in history."⁴⁵

Recognizing that communication with parents is a challenge to administrators, the chapter here concluded attempted to suggest steps leadership in education can take to resolve the dilemma in promotion policies and to help children progress continuously through the elementary-junior high school years. It also described some simple, specific ways in which parents can be helped to understand the nature and quality of the gains their children score in school. A pupil progress diagram was proposed as an example of the untried ideas that an able leader can explore with a staff in order to escape the social and emotional impact of competitive-comparative grading of the child as well as the trite phrases of the more limply written letters which some schools have been sending to parents.

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CHAPTER TWELVE

ORGANIZING THE SCHOOL'S RESOURCES TO SERVE CHILDREN AND YOUTH



SLOWLY at first, but with increasing vigor and momentum, American education has built up, during the last 50 years, an imposing array of resources dedicated to serving the young. The elementary school program, with little if any enrichment to clothe its 3-R skeleton in 1900, has changed almost beyond recognition. The classically oriented high school of times past, which emphasized "upper-class" education of a college preparatory nature, has changed in a manner almost equally startling.

The new conceptions of broadened educational responsibility for the elementary and junior high school have vastly complicated the lives of administrative and supervisory personnel. Not only is the leader expected to see that greatly increased resources are used efficiently; he also is obliged to shoulder the always important, but not always rewarding, task of co-ordinating the programs and personal schedules of a number of staff members whose functions were unknown in turn-of-the-century schools.

THE GROWTH OF SPECIAL FIELDS AND SERVICES

Back in 1939 the Department of Elementary School Principals, NEA, published one of the many outstanding yearbooks it has designed as practical aids to leadership. Entitled *Enriching the Curriculum for the Elementary School Child*,¹ it contained over 50 articles which dealt with descriptions of program enrichment through grade 8. Some of the titles of the articles suggest how broad interpretations of curricular enrichment had become over 15 years ago:

- "Introducing the Study of French in the Upper Grades."
- "Integration of Handwork and Subject Matter Learning."
- "The Newspaper—A Clearinghouse for School Activities."
- "Making and Using Marionettes."
- "Writing and Staging a Play in Grades III and IV."
- "Using Symphony Concerts to Enrich the Music Program."
- "Photography as a School Activity."
- "A Toy Lending Library."
- "Community Vacation Schools."
- "Enrichment through the Book Auto in a County School System."

This list reflects the rapid growth of school services and resources. It also underscores the need for the leader to examine with his staff his role in organizing the many elements involved in the blanket label, "enrichment," and to determine the extent to which the interests and needs of the young may be served within the chronically limited funds available in even the wealthier school districts. The leader and staff must decide where sound enrichment ends and where expansion of offerings leads to diminishing returns.

What Is the Status of Special Fields and Services at Present?
 Reference to almost any text in elementary or junior high

¹ The Department of Elementary School Principals, NEA, *Enriching the Curriculum for the Elementary School Child*, XVIIth Yearbook (Washington, D. C., The Department, 1939).

school administration will reveal that there are many fields and services which have become an accepted part of the instructional program. Reavis, Pierce, Stullken, and Smith list the following areas which are considered as part of the program in some elementary schools and in most junior high schools:

Music	Health, safety, and physical education
Art	School library
Industrial and household arts	Audio-visual aids ²
Arts and crafts	
Dramatics	

In addition to these it is not unusual to find the following supplementary resource offerings to enhance the learning experiences of children and young adolescents:

Photography	School publications
Foreign language	Hobby clubs and activities
Eurythmics	School government and other
Nursery school and 4-year-old kindergartens	pupil-organized activities, etc.

In the realm of new services added to the responsibilities of the staff, and usually assigned to a "special" member of the teaching corps, are the following:

Remedial help for slow learners	Testing programs to secure psychological, personality and achievement data
Health services, including the services of doctor, dentist, nurse	Guidance services
Special classes for the handicapped: deaf, blind, crippled, maladjusted, etc.	

No attempt is made here to exhaust the list of possible services which may be made available to the child in the modern elementary or junior high school. The list is presented merely to accentuate the point that the modern school is no longer to

² William C. Reavis, Paul R. Pierce, Edward H. Stullken, and Bertrand L. Smith, *Administering the Elementary School* (New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1953), pp. 219-231.

be conceived as a place in which the child receives merely the rudiments of learning. It has become a complex organization of services and activities that call for a high degree of coördination and leadership.

The additional responsibilities the schools have assumed undoubtedly make a major contribution to the enrichment of living for the normal learner if they are well-conceived. Furthermore, expanded curricular offerings and activities provide indispensable assistance to the child who has limited social, intellectual, emotional, or physical capacities. While one may occasionally raise a legitimate question as to the cost, need, or desirability of a particular resource in a given school situation, no one is likely to propose seriously that schools restrict themselves to the 3 R's *per se* as they once did.

To approve the inclusion of enormously increased resources and services in the school program in no way solves the difficulties they present, both financially and from the standpoint of coördination, to the educational leader. Whether they continue to contribute to the program in proportion to their cost will depend in large measure on the skill with which educational leaders find solutions to the problems they present, and coördinate them with the other important and equally necessary aspects of the school's work.

Problems for Administrative Leadership Created by Special Fields and Services. When elementary and junior high schools were concerned largely with the teaching of academic subjects, the responsibilities of the administrative leader were relatively simple. It was generally accepted that he would concern himself with the provision of an adequate physical environment for learning, and with assisting classroom teachers to improve their teaching. The increase in special fields and services has multiplied both duties and responsibilities of principals and superintendents. Some of the problems of leadership are related to scheduling pupils' time, evaluating a program in terms of which his own preparation is meager, and the apparent inability of some special subject teachers to see their field as a component of a total program of school living.

The added programs require a substantial share of the budget and of the time of students. The following information provided by a principal suggests the degree to which enrichment may consume portions of the time of six- and seven-year-olds:³

<i>Enrichment Experience</i>	<i>Hours per week</i>
Music (with special teacher)	1
Art (with special teacher)	1½
Gymnasium (two 45 minute periods)	1½
Recess (15 minutes in morning and afternoon except on gym days)	2
Educational films	1
Assembly programs (average)	1
Science (average per week with consultant)	¾
Miscellaneous items: early dismissal for teachers' meetings, standardized tests, collections, fire drills, etc.	1
Field trips	½
 TOTAL	 10½ hours

With a four to five hour day usual for first and second graders, this enrichment program is claiming approximately half the available time. Also, the employment of special teachers in certain areas obviously adds to the cost of the total program. While professionally-minded administrators do not make decisions concerning what is desirable on the basis of cost alone, there remain the challenging decisions pertaining to how one best may *apportion* this additional cost. What portion of it rightfully should be designated for music enrichment as contrasted to art enrichment? Shall a new projector for films be purchased and the ordering of a kiln for the art program be postponed another year? How may such questions be answered?

Yet another difficulty presents itself as the enrichment program expands. Supervisory and administrative leaders may prepare themselves as resource people for all or most of the usual school subjects and activities (e.g., the language arts program,

³ Harold G. Shane and E. T. McSwain, *Evaluation and the Elementary Curriculum* (New York, Henry Holt and Co., 1951), p. 269.

arithmetic, social studies), but it is altogether unlikely that they will be able to develop competencies in every highly developed field. Inevitably, special areas are taught by specially prepared or talented persons, and it is difficult for the leader, less well informed in such specialized subjects, to appraise, control, or coördinate their work. Also, many a specialist considers *his* field to be "most important," without sufficient regard for the contribution of other fields.

When this occurs, the leader may find himself in the uneasy position of choosing among recommendations from special personnel as to how time and money shall be divided. As one solution to the difficulty the reader is reminded that coöperative staff decisions often lead to the development of a suitable policy. The classroom personnel affected by the work of the special teacher should, at every opportunity, participate in scheduling, deciding on what equipment purchases seem most likely to facilitate the experiences they are striving to develop with children and adolescents. The "coöperative staff decision" approach is a great asset to leadership seeking to create well-ordered practices governing the use of both special services and resources.

As special fields proliferate, and specially prepared individuals are employed to carry on the program, there is always the danger that these persons will concentrate on transmitting the skills or the subject matter of their specialties without due consideration for the contribution of these fields to the total development of children. Since the administrative leader in the school lacks competence in at least some of these fields, he is faced with the responsibility for providing direction and coördination in areas with which he is unfamiliar. Furthermore, it is not extraordinary for special teachers and supervisory-administrative consultants (whether they be central office supervisors or building principals) to disagree as to the importance, place, and "balance" among these special areas in relation to the rest of the program.

This situation may best be understood through an illustration in the field of music. (It should not be concluded that

music has been selected for illustrative purposes because it represents a peculiarly difficult problem. It is selected because it appears to typify the problem generated by the programs of nearly all special fields.)

In elementary or junior high schools one is likely to find a staff member to whom the responsibility for the teaching and direction of musical activities has been delegated. This teacher has been specially prepared in the field of music, and often has majored or holds a degree in that field. His work in the school is that of organizing, guiding, and developing musical experiences and activities in which all children, not only the most musically inclined, are expected to participate. In order to achieve a high standard of excellence, it is important that a great deal of time be spent in practice. And, since musical organizations will be expected to perform in public, there is the normal desire that appropriate costumes be supplied—in the case of a choral or instrumental group, robes or uniforms. Special music needs to be purchased, tape or blank records obtained on which the group may record its performance, stage properties, such as flood-lights, bought to equip the setting properly for the activity, and so forth. All of these accouterments may be defended as reasonable if one wishes to produce a highly competent musical organization which performs in a gracious setting.

While he may not attempt to form judgments concerning the *technical* aspects of the activity, the administrator is obliged to make judgments concerning the *support* to be given the program. The musical director usually will hope for a great deal of assigned time for practice, and will expect some consideration with regard to the allocation of school funds to purchase needed equipment.

If only *one* such special activity were carried on in the school in addition to the regularly scheduled programs for children, the requisite decisions would not be so complicated. But, multiplied by the number of items in the list given earlier in the chapter, the pressures for time and funds become quite heavy. It is clear that some basic decisions need to be made

which will guarantee both enrichment and the control of special activities in the interests of a well-rounded, balanced program. Here, again, the practice of group decisions helps to insure fair play for each special area and best service to the overall needs of the children.

Community relations also are involved in policy making that concerns program enrichment. The school leader faces the demands, on the one hand, of the economy-minded segment of the public which demands a reduction in "fads and frills," and on the other hand, of individual parents, and sometimes groups of devotees of a certain special area who want an increase in the support it receives in the school. It is not impossible to find an individual parent who takes both stands at the same time, and finds justification for the apparent inconsistency by suggesting that the reduction in school costs be applied to a school area other than that in which he is particularly interested in having his child engage.

It is possible to discuss at greater length the difficulties and complexities that special fields and services create. However, the general nature of the problems should be clear at this point. Before turning to the next section, it should be understood that the discussion of time, schedule, personnel, and financial vicissitudes associated with special services were not examined with the subtle intent of discouraging their further development. Indeed, the reverse is true! *There is the danger that enriched resources for learning may be impaired and reduced unless leadership clearly senses the nature of the problems they engender and succeeds in solving them through staff participation in the development of programs that are mutually satisfactory to specialists, classroom teachers, children, administrators, and the community.*

SPECIAL SERVICES, SPECIAL FIELDS, AND THE POINT OF DIMINISHING RETURNS

Yuan Shih-kai was the first president of the Chinese Republic. Thrice refusing the title of emperor, he became chief execu-

tive for China from 1912 until 1916, when he fell ill. The first president, even as his country, was in a state of transition, with one foot in a China of the dying past and one foot in a China in the throes of changes created by the contact of Orient and Occident.

Thus, in his last illness, so the legend has it, Yuan Shih-kai summoned Chinese and Western physicians to his bedside and both prescribed medicine. After what was probably an agony of indecision the president chose to try the proposed Oriental and Occidental cures together—with catastrophic results for the chief of state. The subsequent autopsy revealed that either one of the prescriptions might have helped him, but the combination, involving too much medicine, was fatal.

Educational leaders today are likely to find themselves in an analogous agony of indecision with respect to special fields and services. Which ones, and what proportions of each, are the best medicine for the school program? Which will improve rather than "kill off" the patient?

The Enrichment Dilemma. The dilemma of program enrichment has at least two horns on which educational leaders are in danger of becoming impaled: (1) avoiding a too variegated curriculum which, like Joseph's coat, is made up of so many pieces that its appearance is that of patchwork, and is so crowded as to over-stimulate children and teachers, and (2) avoiding a bare-bones curriculum that fails to contribute sufficiently to the satisfaction of individual needs.

One of the basic decisions to which an educational leader and the staff should come co-operatively is that of determining when the point of diminishing returns has been reached. How much is enough? Where does the line of demarcation need to be drawn between the contribution to childhood for which a school may reasonably be held responsible, and the contribution that rightly should come from the home and various community agencies? The modern school cheerfully has accepted a heavy load of responsibilities delegated to it by parents. As one result there often seems to be too little time into which the activities of the school may be fitted. In some districts the point

of diminishing returns apparently has been reached. Further enrichment, without marked increase in personnel and financial resources, should not be undertaken in these schools lest the psychological and physical load placed on teachers and children outweigh whatever doubtful contribution might be made by further expansion of the program. The leader new to an administrative post might, with profit to himself and his co-workers, study how to trim down obsolete or dubious offerings rather than expand the program. What deadwood can be cut away before new growth is encouraged?

No simple prescription can be given for deciding which special programs and activities should be accepted as a part of the school's responsibility, and which ones may better be assumed by the home or some other agency, but the following should serve as guide-posts as parents and the staff discuss the problem:

- (1) What constitute the irreducible fundamentals of a good educational program? The "fundamentals" need to be interpreted as *fundamental* to the all-round progress of individual children toward maturity.
- (2) How much revenue is available for enriching the basic program?
- (3) In view of the size and competencies of the present staff, how extensive a program may be inaugurated without exceeding either its energies or capacities?
- (4) To what extent does the expansion of a special field or service involve a reduction in the clock hours available for the basic classroom program? Is this reduction fully justified by the merits of the proposed enrichment activity?
- (5) To what extent have parents and the general public shown a readiness to accept and support the extension of offerings? Have they shared in planning contemplated changes with the administration and staff?
- (6) What effect will the overall program have upon the desirable development of individual children? The total program needs to be examined to determine if it affords a coördinated series of important activities and to insure that it is not a mere mosaic of unrelated fragments.

- (7) Are there fields and/or services, now a part of the school program, which might be reduced, combined, or eliminated to make room for a proposed addition?

The above list is suggestive of the kind of critical thinking in which a school and community can engage in studying principles of *selection* pertinent to program modification. It would be presumptuous to attempt to dictate arbitrarily which special fields or services are more important than others. This is a conclusion to which a staff, creatively led by the administrator, must come as it attempts to find acceptable solutions to the problem of the over-crowded curriculum. The "importance" of a field or service is relative to the individual school and the status of its program at a particular time.

RESOURCES FOR BETTER HUMAN DEVELOPMENT

Creative administrative leadership is directly involved in at least three major ways with respect to the school's resources and services. The first of these is the matter of budgetary decisions which the administrator recommends to the superintendent or the board of education. The second is the problem of maintaining a correct proportion of all kinds of enrichment activities. Finally, there is the complex of personnel matters into which he is drawn. This includes scheduling, helping the staff reach decisions when there is disagreement, and helping to insure that there is a suitable coördination and "flow" of information.

The present section is concerned with examining some of the decisions which confront administrators and supervisory consultants as their functions bring them into contact with the school's total resources and services. Chosen as representative of the kind of questions to which leadership must give intelligent thought are: (1) whether there should be special rooms for special subjects, such as art, music, or elementary science, (2) whether the functions of a specialist should be identified with those of a "supervisor," of a "special teacher" or of a "con-

sultant," (3) the nature of and program for library services, (4) the nature and extent of school health services, and (5) the question of policies governing provision made by the school for children who deviate either physically or mentally.

It must again be emphasized that the following paragraphs are concerned with a sampling of those issues chosen as particularly illustrative of the leader's problems and functions. It is clearly recognized that certain fields of interest to some readers will not have been discussed. These gaps may readily be filled in as needed by reference to other sources.⁴

Special Rooms for Special Services. Whether or not it is desirable to set aside special rooms for the use of teachers in special areas of the curriculum (i.e., music room, art studio, gymnasium, science laboratory, home economics room) hinges upon several considerations which vary from one district to another. The teacher-pupil ratio, available space, size, age, and "layout" of the school building, for instance, and whether it serves elementary or junior high school children (or both) are illustrative of physical factors which often determine whether special rooms can even be contemplated. The educational philosophy reflected in curriculum practices is equally relevant. With these elements in mind there are two questions to be explored. In the first place, does carrying on the special activity call for equipment and space not generally found in the regular classroom? Secondly, is the school organized on the basis of single, self-contained or unit classrooms, or is it departmentalized for all or most subjects?

These two questions do not necessarily imply mutually antagonistic philosophies. It is possible to conceive of a school organized largely around the self-contained classroom, with special rooms available for the areas that call for unique equipment such as kilns, heavy work benches, or unwieldy tools. The children here would normally spend the majority of their time in the single classroom, and move to the special rooms either

⁴ Cf. for example, Harlan L. Hagman, "The Administration of Facilitating Services," Chapters XV-XIX in his *Administration of American Public Schools* (New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1951).

on a set time schedule, or on a more flexible basis of need. In some schools where a separate art studio is provided, art work is carried on in *both* the studio and the regular classroom, depending upon the nature of the particular experiences the children are having. If they relate directly to the other activities in the classroom, and no special equipment is required, the children engage in art activities in their own classroom, with the art teacher working in that environment with the children. On the other hand, if the art activity calls for special equipment, such as a large weaving loom, the children move to the studio. The special room is also used as a place to which individual children may go to carry on their own creative activities during times when their presence is not required in the classroom.

A good case may be made for the provision of certain special rooms in the elementary school which operates on the organization of the self-contained grade. Some teachers feel insecure in guiding the experiences of children in art, music, or physical education, particularly if these fields involve communicating or teaching skills beyond elementary use of clay, singing rote songs, or playing simple games of low organization. Advanced knowledge and skills in these areas are possessed by relatively few teachers. If the special teacher recognizes the importance of increasing the classroom teachers' knowledge and skill in the special area, he may often find it most desirable to have his equipment set up in a specially designed room. The special area may then be used, not only for the enrichment of children's experiences, but as a place in which *teachers* may learn to deal more skillfully with the media and activities the special field embraces.

Research in the field of child psychology and development seems to indicate that learning takes place best in an environment in which *all* activities are interrelated and fused.⁵ As John Dewey phrased it over a generation ago:

⁵ Cf., for example, Margaret S. Millar, "An Evaluative Study of Art Experience, Material and Equipment in an Elementary School" (unpublished Master's Thesis, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio, 1934), pp. 1-2 and 6-7, and Hilda Taba, *The Dynamics of Education* (London, Kegan Paul, 1932), Chap. IV.

. . . a teacher can find out immensely more about the real needs, desires, interests, capacities, and weaknesses of a pupil by observing him throughout the course of consecutive activity than by any amount of direct prodding or mere cross-sectional observation, and all observations are of necessity cross-sectional when made of a child engaged in a succession of disconnected activities.⁶

While one may justify art, music, and physical education as desirable skills, no one is likely to insist that they may not also enrich learnings in other areas as well. As an illustration, art as a specialized skill has a place in the curriculum, but so does functional art conceived as a means of illustrating and enriching children's experiences developed in another area such as the social studies. There are developmental values both in the individual creation of a painting and in coöperative endeavor with other children on the construction of a wall frieze or kraft paper expressing in tempera emerging social studies concepts.

Leadership is likely to find that there is no categorical answer to the question of whether or not special rooms shall be provided. It is suggested, however, that the solution to the problem lies in a clarification of the purposes of the school, its best organization to achieve these purposes, and a realistic survey of the human and physical resources of the district.

The Role of the Teacher in Special Fields. The matter of whether or not to have appropriately equipped rooms reserved for special subject areas is often determined by circumstances and conditions in the local district as noted above. The "right" decision usually can be reached by the staff as a product of evaluative thinking, with due consideration for the objectives, physical resources, and traditions of the school.

The role of the teacher in special areas hinges on more subtle issues: (1) Shall the program in his field be developed and directed to discover talent and build skill and knowledge or shall the program be designed to contribute to personal-social development? (2) Shall the special field be independent (i.e.,

⁶ John Dewey, *Democracy and Education* (New York, The Macmillan Co., 1916), p. 157.

a logically organized course extending from the primary through the junior high school years) or shall it be subordinate to and correlated with the units of work or "centers of interest" in the unit classroom or core program? (3) Shall the teacher-pupil planning or the teacher's pre-planning of content constitute a framework of learning activity to which art, music, shop or crafts is adjusted?

As a general rule, it is suggested that administrative leadership should endeavor to persuade special personnel to think of their fields as resources for learning which involve knowledge or skill and to concentrate on what their specialty can contribute to the total development of the young. This emphasis, especially in the primary-intermediate period, conceives:

- Art as the fostering of sensitiveness to beauty rather than developing techniques; self-expression rather than lists of things to make and do . . .
- Music as a form of communication and expression for all rather than labored perfection for a few . . .
- Crafts and shop or printing as a source of enjoyment, opportunity for manipulation, and a foundation for satisfying hobbies, rather than job-sheets that tell everyone how to make the same kind of broom-holder or towel-rack.

There is a place for artistry, for musicianship, for craftsmanship, in the elementary-junior high school years, yet all children should not be expected to produce to meet adult tastes and adult standards.

If special fields should neither be divorced from the total program nor emphasize the unreasonable pursuit of perfection of skills, what is the personal contribution of the art or shop or physical education instructor? Ideally, his schedule should allow time each day for planning with classroom or core teachers. If class experiences are pre-planned by the classroom teacher, he and the specialist should modify, through interaction, what each plans to do so that it reinforces the work of the other. In a situation characterized by teacher-pupil planning, one or more of the special area persons might be present to suggest how, for example, elementary science or art can add

to the meaning of activities being projected in a study of housing, transportation, or local community backgrounds.

What is proposed, essentially, is that creative leadership should help *both* classroom and special personnel to sense that each is a member of a team working to build a quality of unity in the curriculum, to create a "one-pieceeness" to the educative process. In such an atmosphere special areas become resources for accelerating, enriching, and enlivening school living. They are not separate phases of the program "bossed" by choral director or science specialist.

But the specialists are not "tails on the kite" of the classroom program either. Content of all kinds (reading, arithmetic, art, science, woodworking, etc.) should be subordinate to decisions pointing to good learning experiences for children as suggested by the pooled professional know-how of all staff members, irrespective of their teaching assignments. The techniques of creating perspective, sight reading, or locating a constellation on a clear night will be woven, by the special and classroom teachers, into the sum of the school living that fills the years between kindergarten and the beginning of high school.

Administrators may expect, but need not be alarmed by, disagreement and occasional friction which may arise between classroom teacher and the consultant. While it is often inimical to good human relations to take sides in such disagreements, the leader can help to dissipate the fog of argument by urging the parties to ask themselves which of two or more alternative procedures or policies is most consistent with the school's philosophy and the principles of good teaching it presumably seeks to mirror. As the principal or superintendent helps to bring about increasingly effective interaction between regular and special teacher, he makes a signal contribution.

The School Library and Librarian. Yet another example of opportunities for leadership in the creative use of school resources is provided by so familiar a service as that of the library. A statement from a superintendent of a large city fires the imagination with the potentialities of the library. The Yearbook of the Department of Elementary School Principals en-

visions a contribution from both library and librarian substantially above the level of services usually provided:

Elementary-school libraries may enhance their value by increasingly attuning their programs and services to the objectives of the good modern elementary school. This means that the school librarian must be a student of modern education in much the same manner as the school principal. The library then becomes the main service center for the total instructional program of the school, and to a great degree most school activities become associated with the library. The program includes not only reading but many other activities as well. For example, I believe the library may well become the main instructional-aids center, including in its services the audio-visual aids which often have been included in a separate center or department.⁷

The educational leader has several alternative choices to make in selecting with the faculty the policies which are to determine the organization of a functional library service. Particularly fortunate is the school which has the opportunity to create a library organization for the first time as in the planning of a new building. Under such circumstances it is conceivable that the librarian may be selected and the program launched on a high professional plane.

The first choices to be made by faculty and administration deal with determining the relative importance and specific functions of the library in the school. Shall it, as Oberholtzer suggests, expand to include such items as the audio-visual educational program in larger schools? Should the librarian occupy a position comparable to that of other faculty members and share in curriculum planning, as has been suggested in a chapter co-authored by a librarian and principal in the XXXth Yearbook?⁸ Or shall she be considered a service agent to locate materials and to be available to the classroom teacher when and as required?

⁷ Kenneth E. Oberholtzer, "Through the Eyes of the Superintendent," in *Elementary School Libraries Today*, XXXth Yearbook, The Department of Elementary School Principals, NEA (Washington, D. C., The Department, 1951), p. 285.

⁸ Helen Bickel and Lillian Simonson, "The Elementary School Library Today," *op. cit.*, p. 11.

A second group of choices facing teachers and administrators pertains to the matters of cost. How much money shall be allocated to the purchase of educational materials which are housed in a central collection? To what extent will this reduce the funds available for books to be used and stored in the individual classrooms? Is the money involved in purchasing expensive library equipment, and the cost of paying for the services of a librarian likely to justify the expenditure?

The answers to the foregoing queries are determined to a large extent by the criteria which are established for determining how much library service, and under what conditions, is justified for a school of a given size. When is a full-time librarian justified? What balance should be struck between the library facilities and, say, a school health service, when funds do not suffice to support both fully?

Finally, a perennial difference of opinion about the most suitable distribution of library materials presents itself. Some classroom teachers are likely to voice the desire to have their bibliographic and textual materials close at hand. They contend that the availability of materials often determines the extent to which they are used. Instead of a central collection of books, one of which may be obtained only through formal application, such teachers prefer to have room book collections to which children may go when the occasion demands. Some of the arguments *pro* and *con* may be summarized as follows:

In favor of a central library:

- (1) Room libraries can be ill-assorted dust-catchers if improperly replenished and cared for by the classroom teacher.
- (2) There often is some duplication of volumes in the classroom, a condition which increases the book budget needlessly and reduces the possibility of a larger collection for the school as a whole.
- (3) The central collection makes books, especially new titles, available to a wider reading public through a more rapid turn-over and superior selection-distribution procedures.
- (4) The librarian, as a professionally competent student of the

contents of books, can acquaint children with a greater variety of books which they may read with pleasure and profit than can even the thoroughly conscientious teacher.

- (5) An understanding of the vastness of recorded, classified knowledge is promoted by the central collection.

In favor of the room collection:

- (1) Books on hand will be used more frequently and functionally in connection with projects or units; their presence encourages leisure reading during the pupil's free time in the classroom.
- (2) The room collection may be related more directly to the educational program in the classroom; a good variety of supplementary books often serves to introduce a project, helps to sustain interest, and facilitates simple research and reference work by the pupils.
- (3) Feelings of warm familiarity develop for books close at hand.
- (4) Children can learn responsibility by managing a room library collection; this can be done by student librarians in all but the lowest grade levels.

In schools of such size and financial endowment as to justify a central library, practice has established that a central collection is superior from the standpoint of the mechanical handling of materials, while the room collection has much educational merit. It seems reasonable to propose that both be developed in the school, the classroom collection being distributed on the basis of short-term loans, and the nature of the collection being determined by the classroom teacher's estimation of needs. A more definite policy cannot be recommended because sound policy is entirely relative to situations. Furthermore, the value of a room collection diminishes from the primary to the junior high school level and varies with the types of school organization—unit or departmental classrooms—which have been accepted at the various grade levels. The maturity, competence, and convictions of librarians and individual faculty members exercise a great if intangible influence on what is most appropriate in a particular situation. It is quite conceivable that, in

a single school, library practices will and should vary among the grade levels and among the teachers within a single grade.

Leadership in the middle-sized and large schools should welcome opportunities to encourage the librarian and teachers to develop increasingly coöperative working relationships in planning how to use a central library as well as infrequently replenishing and rotating room collections which correlate with classwork. Librarians should, in addition, be well acquainted with the nature and purposes of modern education, share in professional in-service activities of the staff, and have a recognized part to play in instruction. As an accepted member of the *teaching* faculty she should be involved in curriculum planning so that she may coöperate and participate intelligently in classroom programs, and so conduct the library service that it is an integral part of the environment for learning.⁹

School Health Services. The poorly supported health services found in hundreds of school districts are entirely inadequate to meet the responsibility public education has for children and youth. Educational leadership has a pronounced responsibility to work out an extension of provisions to improve physical fitness so that children are adequately cared for in regard to their nutrition, health, and general well-being. The needs of childhood and youth demand considerably more than the customary periodic check on physical growth and dental care. Minimum health programs include at least the following:

- (1) The provision of healthful climates for learning: clean rooms, adequate ventilation, restful furniture, and control of contagion.
- (2) Continuous health examinations and carefully kept records, including growth charts.
- (3) A comprehensive nutrition program, including mid-morning and afternoon snacks, and noon lunch.¹⁰

⁹ Since this volume is not directly concerned with the details of the organization and administration of library services, the reader will need to look elsewhere for such information. One good source is the XXXth Yearbook of the Department of Elementary School Principals. Also, cf. Willard S. Elsbree and Harold J. McNally, *Elementary School Administration and Supervision* (New York, The American Book Co., 1951), Chapter XVIII.

¹⁰ Cf. Roma Gans, Celia B. Stendler, and Millie Almy, *Teaching Young Children* (New York, World Book Co., 1952), pp. 358-359.

- (4) Rest and isolation facilities for the child who is ill or who needs relaxation.
- (5) Able administration of examination routines and follow-up, accident procedures, parent notification, home visits by the nurse, visiting teachers for the disabled, etc.
- (6) Health services available in clinics, through referral, for the emotionally disturbed, psychiatric problems, and those children with organic physical disabilities.
- (7) Emphasis on good mental health: improvement of pupils' attitudes; removal or alleviation of fears, tension, and pressures of various sorts.

The educational leader is obviously not personally accountable for carrying out a good health program. His lack of medical-dental knowledge requires that he depend to a great extent on those specially prepared to treat human ills. However, the administrator can work for the basic qualities of a sound program which were listed, and he can make a serious effort to sensitize staff members to their responsibility for child health. As the staff as a whole becomes increasingly competent in assuming this assignment, the health program will improve. Much time and effort will be saved if general principles governing the health program are determined coöperatively by the staff, with clear delineation of special responsibility determined and understood by all. For example, teachers should be urged to recognize that faulty nutrition, poor posture, or physical deficiencies are their personal concern.

The question of the role of the classroom teacher in relation to the health specialist is not always clearly understood by the staff and the administration. School doctors and their medical aids perform a social contribution to the improvement of school health if they accept responsibility for *instructing* teachers concerning what constitutes an adequate healthful environment, and their relation to it. Lacking such advice, teachers unwillingly default on responsibilities which are not recognized. It is not too much to hope that medical authorities will more frequently take time to sit down with teachers and help them to determine the place of aggressive health improvement policy as a part of the curriculum. Preventive measures with children

and youth are at least as important as therapy for those who are ill.

Programs for Children Who Deviate Mentally and Physically. Provision for mental and physical deviates in elementary and junior high schools involves two important considerations: (1) to what extent shall special services be provided (specially equipped rooms and specially trained teachers), and (2) to what extent can the experiences of these children be properly guided within the framework of the regular classroom structure.

Children who challenge the school with the fact of their marked deviation from the norm may be placed in the following categories:

- (1) The mentally retarded or slow learner.
- (2) The mentally gifted.
- (3) The emotionally disturbed.
- (4) The physically handicapped (deaf, blind, orthopedic cases, etc.).
- (5) The social and legal delinquent.

Of the above list, the two groups most commonly faced by the regular classroom teacher are the mentally retarded and the gifted. The other three classifications, it should be noted, will often include the slow learner. Proposals for the development of special services for the mentally retarded and the gifted are legion, and often are based upon the view that special rooms (i.e., segregation) provide a desirable answer to special needs. Not only is this a questionable conclusion; it also prompts many teachers to conclude that, lacking such facilities, there is little that can be done to help the brilliant child fulfill his promise or to spare the slow learner the frustration of failure. Administrators have yet to find appropriate solutions to this problem.

If the slow learners and the mentally gifted are to be expected to continue learning in environments which make no provisions for their special problems, great loss is incurred. Witty makes this point clear with respect to the intellectually endowed in the following excerpt from a publication sponsored by the American Association for Gifted Children:

The public schools of the United States have a heavy responsibility as well as a unique opportunity for developing leaders. They should seek to lessen handicaps and obstacles which many gifted children encounter. In addition, they should strive to provide the opportunity and incentives gifted children and youth require in order to develop in accordance with their potentiality and promise.¹¹

Kirk and Johnson¹² present the obligation teachers face in helping children with limited mental equipment to measure up as best they can to their social and academic level:

It is important for teachers to obtain a perspective. They need to know what methods people have used in the education of the mentally defective, why they used these methods, how to get the best results from known methods, and how to develop new ones.¹³

While human knowledge of what constitutes a good program for deviates sometimes seems to be accumulating more rapidly than practices are changing, the schools *are* doing more and more to meet the individual differences among children. It is to the credit of both administrators and teachers that methods for more adequately solving the special problems some children face are being introduced. Whether it is in special rooms, or within the regular classroom program, all teachers need to know what is needed, and how each teacher can assist in alleviating the difficulties which harass all youngsters who are ‘different’ to a conspicuous extent.

DEVELOPING AN EFFECTUAL GUIDANCE PROGRAM

If the expanded elementary and junior high school is not to degenerate into an “intellectual cafeteria,” in which children

¹¹ Paul Witty (ed.) *The Gifted Child* (Boston, D. C. Heath and Co., 1951), p. 9.

¹² Samuel A. Kirk and G. Orville Johnson, *Education of the Retarded Child* (Boston, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1951).

¹³ *Ibid.*, p. 69.

are lost in a blurred maze of special activities, services, and equipment, serious thought must be given to the continuous and careful guidance each child receives.

Newer Interpretations of Guidance. Guidance, as a special field of activity, has evolved through three distinct phases:

- (1) In the 1920's, it was often looked upon as a *remedial* function. Children who experienced personal or academic difficulties were sent to a person specially trained and equipped with research tools which he used to identify the source of the difficulty and help the child redirect or modify his behavior.
- (2) In the 1930's, guidance began to acquire a *preventive* function. The specially trained person attempted to anticipate difficulties and prevent them from arising. Teachers were counselled with regard to what would be desirable to keep potential problems from deteriorating.
- (3) The third phase, which is currently emerging, is the conception of guidance as the *continuous function of the classroom teacher* working in consultation with the guidance person who serves as a resource.

In the words of Hamrin, "Guidance is seeing through John and then seeing John through."¹⁴ This process involves three administrative responsibilities: (1) proper initiation of the guidance program, (2) adequate in-service education of the staff in the field of guidance, and (3) securing approval of the program of guidance services.¹⁵

Qualities of a Desirable Guidance Program. A program that is consistent with the newer interpretations of guidance concerns itself with down-to-earth problems which children really face.¹⁶ If this is to be the case, the study of children should center around *real* children and not the abstractions that one

¹⁴ S. A. Hamrin, *Guidance Talks to Teachers* (Bloomington, McKnight and McKnight Publishing Co., 1947), p. 12.

¹⁵ S. A. Hamrin, *Initiating and Administering Guidance Services* (Bloomington, McKnight and McKnight Publishing Co., 1953), p. 2.

¹⁶ For an excellent illustration of the guidance person as a resource to teachers, cf. Frank W. Miller (ed.) *Counselling and Guidance Services in Education Today* (Evanston, School of Education, Northwestern University, 1951), Chapters I-III.

finds in books about children. O'Brien suggests that children and young adolescents seek and welcome guidance in learning the following practical, simple things:

- (1) How to progress in school subjects.
- (2) How to study.
- (3) What their particular school believes to be important to youngsters.
- (4) How to get along with teachers.
- (5) The values of an education.
- (6) How to become acquainted with all of the offerings of the school.
- (7) How to bridge the gap to the succeeding grade.
- (8) To take part in social activities.
- (9) To make effective use of leisure time.
- (10) The value of earning money.
- (11) How to grow up emotionally.
- (12) How to speak before their own age group.
- (13) How to get along more easily with adults.
- (14) To know themselves and others better.
- (15) How to keep and improve their physical and mental health.¹⁷

Whether the guidance function is carried on solely by the classroom teacher, or shared with specially trained guidance personnel, the program should involve a great deal more than mere toying with guidance skills and techniques. Guidance personnel should have a background of classroom teaching which will provide them with insights into how the program may be fitted into the regular work of the classroom. Teachers, on the other hand, need broader understanding of the special tools and procedures available for guidance, so that their work with children will not be biased by sentimentality and limited to subjective value-judgments.

Leadership will contribute to the best development of a guidance program if it is capable of helping the staff to avoid two extremes: (1) the loss of the identity of guidance as a specialized way of helping children by maintaining that "all

¹⁷ Margaret O'Brien, "Viewpoints on Guidance in the Elementary School," in *Counselling and Guidance Services in Education Today, op. cit.*, p. 7.

teaching is guidance" to the point that it is indistinguishable from the techniques which effective teachers normally use, and (2) the establishment of guidance as a field so dependent on esoteric child study and test data that only the expert can fathom it. It is through the coöperative efforts of *both* classroom teachers and guidance personnel that the most effective program can be devised and implemented. In Willey's words, "Guidance provides an *environment* in which every child can grow into a socially desirable, happy, and wholesome personality."¹⁸ This environment is a coöperatively produced setting for learning to which all school personnel contribute.

Guidance and the Classroom Teacher. Both because of the changing concept of guidance (which associates it with the daily activity of the classroom teacher) and because many elementary and junior high schools do not employ a special guidance person, educational leadership has the opportunity to contribute personally to the program.

Only a minority of the teachers now serving in the public and private elementary and secondary schools of our country have had any formal training in the field of guidance. This means that if a program of guidance services is to be advanced in any material fashion by teachers, they must receive in-service education for the discharge of their responsibilities.¹⁹

Lacking a specially trained guidance officer, the responsibility for adequate continuous guidance of the child becomes a shared responsibility of the entire staff, with the building principal a likely candidate for the role of chief coördinating officer. Many of the non-technical aspects of guidance may be incorporated into the activity of the classroom. The staff might coöperatively set up the general procedures for good guidance, with the principal available for counseling and helping each teacher assume his share of the duties involved. Some general procedures for the teacher to follow in filling his guidance function include:

¹⁸ Roy DeV. Willey, *Guidance in the Elementary School* (New York, Harper and Brothers, 1952), p. 3. (Italics not in the original.)

¹⁹ S. A. Hamrin, *Initiating and Administering Guidance Services*, *op. cit.*, p. 44.

- (1) Developing a grasp of the techniques and tools used in an intensive study of the children currently enrolled in his class.²⁰
- (2) Establishing and maintaining records and reports which are part of the cumulative folder which will follow each child through school.
- (3) Developing a program of study groups for parents in order to increase their understanding of the problems children face as they move toward adult status.
- (4) Seeking contact with service agencies in the community in order to devise ways of approaching childhood and youth problems which stem from community sources.
- (5) Establishing and clarifying basic principles and agreements concerning relationships among special services related to guidance: the work of the school nurse, doctor, dentist, and, if available, testing counsellors, and special guidance officers should be clearly understood by the teaching staff and principal.

Improving and Coördinating Guidance. Although guidance is currently being interpreted as a function of classroom personnel, the intergrade-interschool coördination of guidance activities usually devolves on the administrator. If guidance counselors are available for the program, their work can be limited to setting up programs of study which will help teachers become more aware of the importance of assisting children to solve their personal problems successfully. Whether or not there are guidance specialists available, administrators can improve the program in the following ways:

- (1) Planning pre-opening school conferences devoted to a study of the problems of children, and the techniques and procedures by which these may be more adequately solved.
- (2) Organizing a series of staff meetings devoted to the problems of guidance.
- (3) Establishing a professional library for guidance purposes.
- (4) Developing and administering a program utilizing the increasing variety of guidance tools now available: tests, sociometric devices, etc.
- (5) Persuading the board of education and community to

²⁰ For a suggested list of instruments for such study, cf. Chapter Five, p. 162.

recognize the need for special services for the guidance of children, including an adequate corps of psychological and testing counselors.

Because the guidance program is but one of his varied concerns, the leader must, in all but the smallest schools, initiate and coördinate the program, rather than assume primary responsibility for the details. If guidance is accepted as an integral aspect of teaching, the teacher must be strengthened in his ability to carry on the program himself. Even the guidance counselor is a resource rather than a director of the program. He should work to free the teacher from depending on him and measure his success by the way experienced teachers can work without him. And, lest he fear for his job, there will always be newly employed teachers to keep him busy.

LEADERSHIP IN THE COÖRDINATION OF SPECIAL SERVICES AND RESOURCES

Permeating each of the preceding sections of this chapter has been the fundamental idea that one of the responsibilities of leadership is that of coördinating and unifying the multiplicity of fields and services so that they contribute as a unit or team to the development of boys and girls. If curriculum crowding, with its resultant confusion and conflicts, is to be avoided, someone must assume the responsibility of ascertaining that the school program is well-articulated. This is a reasonable and proper administrative duty. In performing it, however, the superintendent or principal will need to exercise caution so that he does not over-crowd his own "curriculum" by assuming direct, personal responsibility for all services and resources. In a word, he must learn to *delegate*.

Staff Organization for Effective Coördination of Services and Resources. Because of the number of persons touched by special fields and services, it is especially important that the leader establish a coöperative *group* approach to the coördination of these areas. The staff *as a whole*, including the persons to whom these areas may have been specially delegated, need

to participate in group interaction out of which comes a sense of direction and a policy which are mutually agreeable.

It is not necessary that policy-making pertaining to special services shall involve *all* of the staff in the "organization for participation" suggested in earlier chapters. A committee of teachers may assume many responsibilities, including study of the improvement and articulation of special fields and services, and may recommend to the entire staff, from time to time, modifications which it feels will further the best interests of children. This suggested program may then be discussed, approved or modified by the entire group, and put into operation. The action committee also might be held responsible for general supervision of the program, and at intervals share with the total staff its plans and activities. It is well to re-emphasize the need for the committee to remain linked to the faculty. Members of the committee gain a great deal of insight into the problems of special fields and services which should be communicated to other members of the faculty clearly and frequently.

Regardless of the care which is taken to establish faculty agreements and understandings concerning the work of special personnel, there is the ever-present likelihood of misunderstandings. The music specialist may choose to use the auditorium at the same time the audio-visual education specialist has planned to use it. The teacher of industrial arts occasionally may give vent to irritation at the request of the guidance officer to have a child come to his office for counselling during the period when the child is assigned to the shop. The leader should be alert to these potential trouble spots, and be available to help in reaching agreeable compromises and adjustments. Friction and conflict may be enormously reduced if an atmosphere of wholesome coöperation is established in which everyone accepts the need for a fair balance among children's activities and develops respect for the contributions of all special fields and services.

Whose Views Shall Have Precedence, Those of Special Personnel or Classroom Teacher? In the traditionally organized school the supervisor of special subjects, or the "line officers"

charged with a special service, had the authority to determine the work to be done by the classroom teacher. It was considered desirable for the teacher to be instructed in the special field of service in whatever way the specialist deemed important. The emerging concept of specialists as resource personnel, available to the classroom teacher on a consultative basis, has created a different problem in human relations. Many of the present supervisors and specially trained personnel have grown up under the old system, and find it difficult to change their views. They try to take the position that the concept of the resource person is valid, but, paradoxically, continue to feel that teachers need to be "told what to do."

Any generalization about the relation of classroom teacher and specialist is bound to ignore the tremendously important factor of individual differences. Certainly, immature or inexperienced classroom teachers need a great deal of expert guidance and even direction. On the other hand, equally immature or inexperienced consultants may have little to offer to the wise and mature insights of the seasoned classroom teacher.

The staff which attempts to work out relationships among the many possible different specialists will need to take into consideration this factor of maturity, and seek its solution by emphasizing the importance of a "leadership of merit" rather than of *rank*. It is considerably less important to determine *who* shall decide than *what* will most desirably assist children to achieve maximum benefit from the educational activity. As consultants, special resource people, supervisors, and classroom teachers more and more frequently base their actions on agreement as to what is consistent with the best interests of children, the question of who is in *authority* will diminish as an issue.

SUMMARY

Special fields and services have multiplied enormously during the last five decades. While those that have been added are almost invariably desirable in the elementary-junior high school program, the coördination of these increased resources

places an additional load on administrative leadership. The leader must develop a background in terms of which he can evaluate the contribution of special services as he articulates and coördinates the various components of an enriched program.

As resources grow in number and become widely accepted, one of the problems of leadership is that of determining with the staff where the point of diminishing returns, with respect to program enrichment, is reached. That is, there is need to determine when accumulating resources begin to *complicate* as much as they *facilitate* a good curriculum, and when their added cost becomes relatively greater than their contribution.

In addition to considering the question, "How much enrichment is enough?" Chapter Twelve dealt with some representative concerns of leadership in organizing special resources for optimum use: for example, the effective organization of the school library, programs for mental and physical deviates, administering the guidance program, and personnel policies affecting staff members working in the special fields or providing special services.

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CHAPTER THIRTEEN

HELPING THE STAFF USE TEACHING MATERIALS CREATIVELY



A MIDWESTERN administrator is the source of an anecdote which effectively makes the point that a continuing need exists for creative leadership in the use of teaching materials. In his capacity as a superintendent in a small suburban elementary school district, he budgeted \$1,000 for various instructional tools: art supplies, film rentals, and so forth. The fact that the money was available for staff requisitions was announced in September and reiterated in an early autumn bulletin, but the superintendent deliberately avoided "promoting" the use of the fund.

In June he told a group of fellow administrators the outcome of his experiment. Of \$300 earmarked for film rentals, less than \$20 was used by the staff of 17. Of the remaining \$700, under \$200 was requisitioned for maps, art supplies, supplementary books, and science materials. Ironically, *one* teacher used nearly half of the \$200 for scenery and costumes in a Christmas program!

While the anecdote does not typify the attitudes of teachers toward the use of instructional aids in all school districts, it points to the conclusion that creative administrators *should not*

merely provide the means for an enriched program. They also have responsibility for the educationally effective use of teaching materials. There is so much for children to learn that all available types of teaching aids are needed to speed up the learning process.

Human knowledge is increasing at a well-nigh incredible rate. As one writer has calculated:

We are acquiring as much new information each two years as we acquired in the total of human history up to now. Within five years that two-year span will have decreased to one year. Within ten years it will have diminished to three months.¹

The dynamic accumulation of knowledge places upon schools the need to share more information with children more rapidly—a process in which teaching aids are of substantial importance. Also, it is increasingly vital to improve human understanding by endowing the experiences of children and youth with more complete and concise meanings. Again, this point suggests and supports the need for educational leadership in the creative use of materials which serve to accomplish this end.²

TEACHING AIDS AS MEANS RATHER THAN ENDS

Teaching aids are somewhat analogous to the equipment in the "little black bag" of the physician. Its contents are of value only to the extent that they are used properly in helping the patient to become or to remain well. Instructional aids need to be appraised in view of the success with which they give service to the educational needs of children and youth in the schools. **Teaching Aids as Tools.** The point scarcely can be stressed too strongly that any instructional aid must always remain subordinate to the role of the teacher in the educative process.

¹ John McPartland, "No Go, Space Cadet!" *Harper's Magazine*, 204:66, May, 1952.

² A convincing and well-documented statement regarding the role of audio-visual materials may be found in W. A. Wittich and C. F. Schuller, *Audio-Visual Materials: Their Nature and Use* (New York, Harper and Brothers, 1953). Cf. Chapter I.

In the hands of skillful teachers the aid may become an efficient tool for the maximum learning of children, but it can never become an acceptable *substitute* for expert teaching. Hammers and saws, lumber and nails, however skillfully made and abundantly supplied, cannot build a house. Neither can motion pictures, field trips, radio and television equipment, or tape recordings build an educational program.

The presence of an administrative organization for the instructional aids program does not insure their effective use. Again, as was pointed out in the anecdote at the beginning of this chapter, mere financial provisions in the budget do not guarantee success. Neither will an expertly devised handbook and the presence of a director of audio-visual instruction take the place of good teaching. The employment of specialists in the field, the provision of an adequate budget, the establishment of an efficient administrative organization—all are merely techniques for encouraging the use of teaching materials by making them available to the insightful teacher. Leadership in the use of teaching materials involves recognition of the fact that teaching aids, like all tools, acquire significance from the hand that directs them.

"Efficient Administration" Versus Optimal Usage. A goodly number of successful administrators have built a reputation for the ability to budget school monies efficiently. This is a commendable quality. However, unsound economies in ordering rented films can limit their educational utility. A 16 mm. or 35 mm. film should be available at a time when it can enrich a particular unit or enterprise. It is frustrating at least, and sometimes actually a distraction, to show films when they happen to arrive rather than when they are needed. For this reason, administrators are urged to avoid the dubious "economy" to be achieved by ordering such teaching aids as sound films in large quantities and many months in advance. Such a practice can be a severe handicap to the creative use of films and other aids-to-learning as well.

While a clerk can order 200 or 300 films in much less time than she can place 50 individual orders, the smaller number of

films, timed to arrive when teachers need them, is likely to be more valuable than many more films arriving in a haphazard fashion. Economy is a means to better-run schools; it is not an end in itself.

A partial solution to the apparent dilemma of how to operate economically, yet in an educationally sound fashion, may sometimes be found by making a distinction between different categories of instructional aids: (1) those which can be classified as "standard" supplies, likely to be requisitioned by nearly all teachers who have activity programs: paint, construction paper, clay, lumber, etc., (2) those items which can be used efficiently only as the need for them arises in the developing classroom program: films, supplementary books, special art supplies, etc. The latter classification may better be purchased through the establishment of a room or building fund on which teachers may draw as the need arises rather than through a centralized system in which one places orders weeks or months in advance of anticipated need.

WHAT TEACHING AIDS CAN AND CANNOT ACCOMPLISH

Perception is indispensable to learning; ". . . we construct our world of things and events out of our sensory processes. . . ."³ One can only know the environment about him through the five senses. In other words, the individual's interpretations of his world are the sum of his perceptions.

Of coördinate importance with perception is the communicative act. In the somewhat involved prose of John Dewey:

. . . To be a recipient of a communication is to have an enlarged and changed experience. One shares in what another has thought and felt and in so far, meagerly or amply, has his own attitude modified. Nor is the one who communicates left unaffected. . . . Except in dealing with commonplaces and catch phrases one has to assimilate, imaginatively, something

³ Howard L. Kingsley, *The Nature and Conditions of Learning* (New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1947), p. 262.

of another's experience in order to tell him intelligently of one's own experience.⁴

Since the process of teaching and learning is inseparably joined with perception and communication, and since instructional aids are tools for assisting teachers to enhance meanings in the learning process, the staff needs to know a great deal about the nature of learning before reaching professional conclusions as to how aids shall be used. While administrators will do well to help teachers in widening and deepening learning experiences, leadership must be sensitive to the fact that it takes time for a faculty to develop insight into the subtleties of perception and communication. As Dewey seems to imply, teachers need to assimilate something of what each child's experiences mean to that individual child in order to use teaching aids intelligently. That is, they must know the workings of the inner world of childhood as well as how to handle instructional tools. Experience is personal and unique. Each boy and girl responds to and interacts with his environment in different ways. Thus, teachers need to be assisted to develop awareness of the fact that some aids are more effective with certain children than they are with others. One of the most subtle limitations on instructional tools is imposed when teachers lack the ability or experience to interpret how a particular pupil is responding to them.

Leadership in the Use of Representative Teaching Aids. It is the intention of this book not to engage in an exhaustive discussion of the administration and use of teaching materials, but rather to emphasize some of the considerations of leadership as the program is organized and developed. The concern here is with the *relation* of the leader to the program, rather than with the program itself.

The following thirteen categories of teaching aids, adapted from Wittich and Schuller, will be used as a basis for subsequent discussion:

⁴ John Dewey, *Democracy and Education* (New York, The Macmillan Co., 1916), pp. 6-7.

The chalkboard	Radio
Flat pictures	Educational recordings
Graphics	Classroom recorders
The tackboard	Still projectors
Globes and maps	16 mm. sound films
Three-dimensional aids	Television ⁵
The community	

The chalkboard. The chalkboard has for so long been standard equipment in the classroom that it is in danger of being taken too much for granted. Usually little advice is given teachers (by such leaders as the building principal) in its proper use, with the possible exception of suggestions that they use exemplary handwriting when using the chalkboard. Educational leaders might help teachers to be more creative by urging that teachers develop some skill in the creation of personalized cartoon techniques, the use of grids and projection equipment to improve their drawings, or the use of various kinds of colored crayon.⁶ It is generally accepted and seems highly probable that vivid illustration of what is being presented through the employment of graphs, line drawings, or "chalk-talks" will appreciably increase understanding. The ever-present chalkboard may be used much more imaginatively than is the rule in the average classroom without increasing the cost of instructional aids.

Flat pictures. Flat pictures, or any two-dimensional photograph or painting, may be used for more than mere decoration of the classroom. The worth of this illustrative material should not be under-valued. The selective and consistent accumulation of pictures from magazines, such as *Life*, the *National Geographic*, and similar publications, can add appreciably to the visual meaning of textbooks and supplementary reading materials. Organized in a well-indexed, systematically arranged "vertical file," this collection can easily serve the needs of differing levels of interest and maturation. Kindergarten and

⁵ Wittich and Schuller, *op. cit., et passim*.

⁶ L. Kable, "Chalkboard: Number One Visual Aid," *NEA Journal*, 37:306, May, 1948.

primary teachers have long found picture collections to be of value in their work with young children; upper elementary and junior high school teachers sometimes have been less inclined to appreciate their worth. Kept in a central location for all to share, as in the library, an accumulation of flat pictures can become a well-filled reservoir of importance to all teachers.⁷

The leader's main concern is, obviously, that of encouraging teachers to exploit picture collections. When one enters the classroom the flat picture should capture both eye and interest with its fresh appeal and convey the flavor and content of the children's current adventures in learning.

Graphics. Under this heading may be listed charts, diagrams, graphs, posters, cartoons, and comics.⁸ One of the particular leadership opportunities with respect to these items (in addition to those generally associated with the use of all instructional aids) is that of helping teachers become familiar with the sources of colorful and suitable graphics. Scattered as they are in magazines, monographs, books, or in commercial advertising materials, it is necessary that teachers be constantly on the look-out for them and learn to share what they find with others. Arranged systematically in a file similar to that of the picture collection, graphics can be of particular service to teachers who are desirous of enriching children's experiences through more symbolic presentations. Another of the leader's contributions with respect to graphics is that of keeping teachers conversant with the school collection and helping them to keep it alive.⁹

The tackboard. The bulletin board space in elementary and junior high classrooms has increased enormously from the 3' x 4' cork rectangle of the 1920's. While formerly nearly all wall space was devoted to chalkboards, it is not unusual to find more

⁷ For additional helpful ideas, cf. The Association for Childhood Education, *Portfolio on Audio-Visual Materials* (Washington, D. C., The Association, 1951).

⁸ Wittich and Schuller, *op. cit.*, p. 92.

⁹ A useful discussion for leaders appears in Harris Harvill, "The Use of Posters, Charts, Cartoons, and Graphs," *Audio-Visual Materials and Methods in the Social Studies*, XVIIIth Yearbook, The National Council for the Social Studies (Washington, D. C., The Council, 1947).

than half of such space occupied by tackboards in the classrooms built since 1946. These may be used for decoration (i.e., pictures of autumn leaves, spring flowers, and animals) or they may be used to display children's art work, themes, and spelling papers.

Leadership can often help teachers to stimulate one another to use tackboard areas to good advantage. This may be done by calling attention to attractive displays or by finding opportunities to suggest special displays. While merely artistic material has little educational value in itself, a measure of artistry helps to "put over" those displays that do have educational merit. Any display of children's work should be attractively arranged, and, after a reasonable length of time, replaced by fresh material.

One of the main values of the tackboard, outside of its obvious importance as a place on which children may work as they construct a mural, frieze, or time-line, is that of providing children with the experience of working out attractive exhibits which contribute to their budding sense of beauty and good taste. Two additional values of tackboard use merit mention. Visitors to the classroom, particularly parents and interested community members, often gain a favorable impression of the various activities of the classroom by observing the work displayed. Also, children are motivated to work at a higher level of efficiency if they know that their efforts, even if short of perfection, will have a fair chance to be tacked up for all to see.

Art consultants often are exceedingly good at assisting teachers develop a flair for attractive displays through the artistic use of captions, colorful construction-paper backings, and an eye-catching arrangement of materials. In all grades, including the kindergarten and extending through the junior high school years, the children themselves should be invited to participate in making the tackboard reflect their interests, purposes, and progressively improving skill in creating a pleasing setting for school living.

Globes and maps. Globes and maps have for so long been accepted as standard equipment in the classroom that they

have come to be venerated and taken for granted, like grandfather at a family reunion—ornamental but not very useful. Teachers need to develop a fresh sense of the importance of understanding maps and globes in an era when air travel has become commonplace. These aids also can help to communicate the new concepts of space, time and distance as the tempo of life increases. What was once considered as a great distance has dwindled to inconsequence as a barrier to the man of the twentieth century. Important events in history have been influenced by geography—for instance, the tragic Battle of New Orleans fought after the peace was signed because distance kept the news from reaching the combatants. Children need to understand how today the world is laced together by man's technology, that "There are no distant points in the world any more," and that "Our thinking in the future must be worldwide."¹⁰ Maps and globes retain their importance and find new significance in an era when one can leave Chicago after dinner and see the Guard change at Buckingham Palace the next day.

Leaders perform a needed service as they assist teachers to modify and to modernize their conceptions of the use of maps and globes. Instead of thinking of them only as set spatial contexts, scored with lines of latitude and longitude and vivid with the colors of political subdivisions, it is important that they understand the relativity of space and time in the world represented by maps and globes. Since the symbolic nature of these instructional aids calls for a high degree of ability to abstract intellectually, teachers need to understand that children must experience ways of using them functionally and consequently with greater understanding. The crude attempts of children to chart the familiar geography of their own neighborhood and community is a suitable preliminary in the elementary years to the construction of child-made maps of foreign territory.

Three-dimensional aids. The old stereopticon viewer prominently displayed on grandmother's sitting-room table has, in a new incarnation, acquired a modern garb in the three-dimensional film, both in the home and the movie theater. The advent

¹⁰ The excerpts are from Wendell Willkie's gravestone, Rushville, Indiana.

of 3-D movies was anticipated by the three-dimensional stereograph used in many schools. The addition of the third dimension, although a mechanical optical illusion, has increased both the interest and potential opportunity for learning by children who use them. The increased fidelity of perception achieved through the addition of an illusion of depth has materially aided sensory experience.

In this age of increasing competition between the school and its commercialized competitors, such as television and the corner movie theater, it is becoming important for the school to exercise considerable ingenuity in making public education more meaningful and more attractive than it has been. The third dimensional effect may be introduced in the construction of dioramas as a desirable variation to flat pictures. Building principals and art consultants can be of service by suggesting activities which encourage children to represent their growing understanding of the world about them through the display of real objects, and the construction of replicas or models of machines and devices which they are studying.¹¹

The community. The community as an educational resource previously was discussed in Chapter Six. Leadership can contribute to the school's use of this resource by assisting teachers in the analysis of, and in familiarizing the total staff with those which may be used advantageously in the school program. If the school recognizes the community as an educational resource, this recognition may take three forms: (1) bringing into the classroom those resources which can be studied there, such as rock collections or relics of pioneer days, (2) taking the children on a field trip in the community (e.g., to the local water works) and (3) engaging in socially useful work.¹²

Radio. Programs sponsored by school districts often have tended to center around pre-planned lessons in science, social studies, English, and such fields and topics as lend themselves

¹¹ An excellent handbook through which the administrator can become informed of all types of exhibits: Marjorie East and Edgar Dale, *Display for Learning* (New York, The Dryden Press, 1952).

¹² For a wealth of suggestions, cf. Edward Olsen, *School and Community* (New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1945), Chapters 6-12.

to this specialized form of instruction. There is another important value of radio which, although considerably more significant, is often lost in too great a concentration on this first purpose. While some pointed questions might be raised with regard to the educational desirability of teaching arithmetic lessons to all fourth graders at the same time through the use of classroom radio, for example, one cannot question the importance of educational broadcasts as a means of teaching children to *listen* and to *interpret*. As one of the communication skills, listening has been profoundly neglected.

Another contribution radio can make to the enrichment of children's experiences is by means of the *creation* by children of dramatic radio programs which involve the use of other instructional aids and, in addition, give meaning to expressive language arts activities.

Educational recordings. Conventional library resources, consisting of books and magazines, may be supplemented by phonograph records and taped recordings, both items legitimately distributed by the library. The record and tape collection might include a permanent file of musical recordings, dramatic presentations, and current events worth preserving. Administrative leadership should familiarize the staff with available transcriptions and with the source of new recordings.¹³

Classroom recorders. The school which possesses a recording machine, whether disc, tape, or wire, has educational opportunities which exceed in value those associated with the use of machines which merely reproduce recordings. The use of a device for recording classroom discussions, making records of pupils' spoken language, "taping" an educational activity to be used at a later time for a radio program, and so on, presents educational advantages that are easy to imagine. While playback equipment lends itself only to passive (receptive) type situations, the recorder facilitates many types of active participation. School "radio broadcasts," language and speech im-

¹³ For a commentary on the values of radio and recordings, cf. Edgar Dale, *Audio-Visual Methods in Teaching* (New York, The Dryden Press, 1946), pp. 263-265.

provement, and the recording of significant programs (presidential speeches, educational broadcasts) not on the air during school hours, are representative uses of recording equipment which principals can encourage the staff to use. Because they are used in more active situations than are record *players*, the recording gear does not create the problem associated with aids which tempt teachers to substitute a machine for the act of teaching.

Still projectors. The still projector for some years had to fight for its continued existence in the face of stiff competition from the motion picture projector, especially when sound tracks were introduced. Film and slide projector materials attempted to meet this competition by providing manuals and scripts to accompany the picture, and ultimately began to prepare sound recordings to be played with the projection. Teachers have, nevertheless, continued to prefer the sound motion picture, perhaps in some instances because it eases the demand for personal effort in teaching.

Recently, writers in the teaching aids field have pointed out quite properly that still and motion pictures do not actually compete but *complement* one another. Certain points or concepts are best presented through the use of motion while others can better be communicated via the slide machine or the opaque post-card type of projector. Administrators should convey through in-service programs the fact that the still projector has certain advantages over motion pictures, such as a better opportunity to study details, and to control the rate of showing.¹⁴

Pupil-made slides,¹⁵ and 2" x 2" color transparencies obtained from 35 mm. film may be produced for a modest cost and lend themselves to school activities. Slides of children at work can, for example, be used at Parent-Teacher Association programs to interpret the work of the children. Again, teacher and children can develop a good set of slides depicting a unit they have

¹⁴ F. D. McCluskey and C. L. Berg, "What Are the Educational Values of the Sound Slide Film?" *Educational Screen*, 21:314-315, October, 1942.

¹⁵ Harold Hainfeld, "School-Made Filmstrips and 2 x 2 Slides," *Audio-Visual Guide*, 14:15-16, May, 1948.

completed and share these materials with children at other grade levels or project them at a room program to which parents are invited. Creative leaders will see similar opportunities to rescue the still projector from the temporary eclipse to which it has been subjected.

16 mm. motion picture film. While widely used, the motion picture is often ineptly handled and its use by the staff can be handicapped by problems of film distribution and of scheduling the use of the projector. Science films, especially the colored sound type, are often too expensive for average-sized districts to own outright, and some central distributing agency must be depended on. This creates irritating incidents with respect to timing; it is difficult to insure that films are available at the right moment psychologically for the children to view them. In addition to such mechanical difficulties as scheduling there is the matter of educating that minority of teachers who cheerfully use *any* film at *any* time, irrespective of its theme and the content of the curriculum at their grade levels.

Technical problems involved in the actual projection of the films are another concern of leadership. Few teachers are particularly skilled in the operation of the projectors, and consequently are happy to have someone else assume that responsibility. In addition, since projectors are expensive, not more than one is usually available in a building or small school district. This makes the problem of scheduling a difficult one to solve. As has been noted, if films are to be used to good effect, they must be shown at the proper time: as a pre-view of a topic to be explored with children, to lend meaning to an enterprise under way, or as a culminating experience to a project.¹⁶

Since other volumes eloquently present the virtues of the motion picture as an instructional aid, these paragraphs are concerned with "balancing the score" by pointing out that all is not uniformly perfect in the film-use practices commonly encountered. The modern sound motion picture, technically per-

¹⁶ Administrators seeking a useful background book with respect to films might consult C. R. Hoban, Jr., *Movies that Teach* (New York, The Dryden Press, 1946). Also, cf. Amo deBernardis, *Audio-Visual Projectionist's Handbook* (Chicago, Business Screen, no date given).

fected and generally authentic, sometimes makes less of a contribution than it might because of faulty habits in using it.

Properly controlled by the teaching staff, the motion picture remains a powerful supplement to effective teaching. But, teachers who are too timid to use the projection equipment, the indolent who use films to consume time, the abuse of instructional films as "entertainment" for all children "every Friday at 10:30," and the ordering-scheduling of films so that they reinforce and correlate with appropriate learning experiences leave administrators with ample opportunity to exercise leadership in strengthening this phase of the audio-visual program.

Television. Too new yet to be evaluated definitively as an educational aid in the school program, television is emerging as one of the most challenging and powerful influences in the lives of boys and girls. Proposed programs of educational television are mainly in the planning stage. However, educators need to study the implications of the tremendous hold that commercial television has gained on the time and attitudes and in the minds and imaginations of children and youth. Whatever the future of educational television as it relates to the curriculum, it is clear that educational leaders will need increasingly to lead staffs in a study of the effects of televiwing on the lives of children. Unless the school program becomes materially more attractive to boys and girls, there is at least some possibility the school curriculum will be less significant in shaping the lives of youth than is TV.

Throughout the above discussion of instructional aids attention to one matter was deliberately deferred. It must now be noted that in nearly every one of the 13 aids discussed there are rich opportunities for children to gain excellent first-hand experiences through participation in the *operation* of the program. This is specially true as children mature in ability to a point at which they share responsibility for helping to direct the program through teacher-pupil planning. Upper elementary and junior high school boys and girls also are fully capable of participation involving such responsibilities as operating projectors, caring for equipment, and making such minor repairs as replacing burned-out projector lamps. The extent to which

the children participate actively and purposefully in the teaching aids program is one measure of its success.

Limitations of Teaching Materials. Educational psychologists have established the importance of first-hand, direct experience as a powerful way to facilitate learning.¹⁷ All other methods are to some extent less educative. While the school cannot be expected to build an entire program on the direct experience approach, it is important that as much school living as possible be planned to furnish direct contact with things rather than words so the subsequent, more abstract learning can be comprehended more readily than otherwise would be the case. Edgar Dale has emphasized this point in his "cone of experience,"¹⁸ in which a broad base of direct, purposeful experience supports all other teaching procedures. It can scarcely be emphasized too strongly that only the *teacher's* initiative can provide this foundation for children; no instructional aid mentioned above can do so. Thus, teaching aids must always remain supplementary to skillful teachers and can never supersede or supplant the teacher. This is a fundamental limitation inherent in all instructional tools.

Educational leaders should keep in mind that teaching aids do not *per se* improve instruction. In the hands of an incompetent or unskillful teacher the aids may be aimlessly directed or carelessly misused. As used by an instructor who recognizes their values and their limitations, films, graphs, radio, and the like can make good teaching outstanding. The wisdom with which they are used by teachers can be influenced perceptibly by the quality of the leadership the principal provides.

THE EDUCATIONALLY EFFECTIVE ADMINISTRATION OF TEACHING MATERIALS

While the skillful use of teaching aids is not the preëminent concern of the administrator, he can be of great service by applying sound educational values to the organization of the

¹⁷ Leigh Peck makes this point clearly and notes that first-hand experience is needed by older children as well as the very young. Cf. *Child Psychology* (Boston, D. C. Heath and Co., 1953), pp. 142-143.

¹⁸ Edgar Dale, *op. cit.*, p. 39.

program and the principles upon which the selection of the instructional aids are based.

In terms of educational significance, by all odds the most important aspect of the administration of these materials and equipment is their selection. . . .

Long ago it was proved that both teachers and children must participate in the selection of textbooks if the wisest choice is to be made. The sound selection of audio-visual material demands the judgment of teachers and pupils just as does the sound selection of textbooks.

The selection of learning materials and equipment is a joint responsibility of pupils, teachers, supervisors, and administrators. It does not involve one or the other; all must help. Where differences of opinion arise, a practical compromise must be worked out and arrangements made to determine the educational results of the choice made.¹⁹

Planning for the Effective Use of Teaching Aids. Among the aspects of a well-planned instructional aids program on which agreement should be reached by means of staff participation are the following:

- (1) Decisions with regard to the allocation of funds to implement the various phases of the program. How much shall be set aside for film rental, how much for the purchase of strip-films, maps, etc.?
- (2) Determination of the rules governing the use of special equipment. Under what conditions shall the various projectors be used? What procedures need to be devised for maximum use of such equipment?
- (3) The development of a set of principles governing the use of a particular aid. This will need to be broken down into several subdivisions: (a) instructional aids that call for special equipment (e.g., movies), (b) aids that depend on permanent equipment in each room (e.g., chalkboards), and (c) resource aids which revolve around pupil activity (e.g., field trips).
- (4) Development of the habit of continuous evaluation of the strengths and deficiencies of the program. Regardless of

¹⁹ Wittich and Schuller, *op. cit.*, pp. 498-499.

the extent to which appraisals are structured in advance, it is important that the staff be continually informed concerning the success of the program, and where it would be economical and educationally advantageous to redirect the program.

Meeting the Problem of Scheduling the Use of Teaching Aids.

In scheduling teaching aids the most acute difficulty is usually presented with respect to 16 mm. films. Special attention is limited to this particular aid since the principles involved are analogous to all other scheduling difficulties.

Mention previously has been made of the difficulty of ordering motion picture films far enough in advance to assure that choice subjects can be obtained while avoiding the need of placing such orders so far ahead of actual use that arrival dates dictate the exact sequence of learning experiences. If films are ordered from a distribution center which requires that reservations be made months in advance,²⁰ there is reason to ask whether it deserves the school's patronage. A few well-chosen films, even if ordered at greater cost, are of more value than free or inexpensive films which are not available for delivery on short notice.²¹ Leaders in administrative positions should discourage teachers from the disposition to use films, regardless of their pertinence to current work undertaken by children, on the assumption that "It's a shame not to use them when they are here."

With regard to equipment which several teachers wish to use at the same hour (a likely eventuality when one motion picture projector must be shared by 25-30 teachers) it is recommended that principals initiate discussion and subsequent decisions governing the equitable use of equipment by all. A bit

²⁰ One midwestern state-supported film center urges that orders be placed in the spring of the preceding academic year. Such a policy obviously militates against creative teacher-pupil planning.

²¹ A great many film catalogues of all kinds are available to schools. A useful reference, issued periodically, is M. F. Horkheimer and J. W. Diffors (eds.), *Educator's Guide to Free Films* (13th edition, July, 1953). Also, P. A. Horkheimer, P. T. Cody, and John Guy Fowlkes (eds.), *Elementary Teachers Guide to Free Curriculum Materials* (10th edition, August, 1953). (Both published at Randolph, Wisconsin, Educator's Progress Service.)

of coördinated pre-planning among teachers often eliminates scheduling conflicts. The scheduling of equipment sometimes may be controlled by as simple a device as that of having a record form kept in the office on which teachers sign for the time at which they plan to operate equipment.

In summary, leadership should avoid arbitrary approaches to scheduling aids to instruction. It is a superior practice to make arrangements with the staff which are agreeable to all parties concerned. The group agreement procedure is not guaranteed to work perfectly, but usually is more successful than autocratically established equipment-use rules set up by the principal.

The Issue of Individualized Versus Mass Use of Audio-Visual Materials. Reference was made, in the section dealing with 16 mm. motion picture films, to the growing misuse of this aid as a means to entertain rather than educate children. "Entertainment," as used here, implies mass viewing of a particular film (regardless of its appropriateness) by large groups of children of all ages. Often this is done to "get the most out of the rental dollar." Administrators, in all fairness, may be called to account for permitting this indiscriminate viewing of films, for instance at all-school assemblies held at weekly intervals. One of the authors has actually observed a series of films being shown consecutively to groups of children ranging from the first to the sixth grade, with titles of the films ranging from "The First Signs of Spring," appropriate at the primary level, to "The Principles of Internal Combustion Engines," a subject which was presented with complex terminology and abstract diagrams incomprehensible to all but a handful of the most mature children present.

Dale has highlighted this difficulty in the following quotation:

. . . "Aren't the same principles that apply to all teaching equally applicable to audio-visual materials? Are there any *new* principles of learning?" It is quite true that there has been no revolutionary discovery of new principles of learning. But what we know is that well-established principles of teaching

are not adequately used by teachers either with old-type or new-type materials.²²

Teachers need assistance from administrators in re-assessing the practices they sometimes countenance with films. The mass viewing of irrelevant films is perhaps one of the most glaringly inconsistent practices encountered in some schools in which teachers think they are up-to-date because there is an "audio-visual program."

Film choices need to be "tailored" to fit the needs of a particular group of children at a particular time during the year when their understandings will be clarified and extended by a given film. Long ago the idea that children should pile up impressions to be used for later reference was discredited, yet this is the only basis on which the mass viewing of films can be justified. The sooner such usage is abandoned the better it will be. Dale has suggested a method of determining the question of what films should be selected at a certain time. He reviews the "Why," the "What," the "How," and the "When" of audio-visual materials in a chapter to which administrators are referred.²³

THE TEACHING MATERIALS CENTER

Authorities in the field of teaching aids²⁴ agree that a well-organized teaching materials center is desirable both in school systems and in large individual buildings. Ideally, the center should be located conveniently so that it is readily accessible to all teachers in much the same way as a well-located library. A few writers even have expressed the view that the center might be made a part of the library service, either with the audio-visual director responsible to the librarian or with the same person filling both positions.²⁵

²² Dale, *op. cit.*, p. 488.

²³ *Ibid.*, Part III-B, Chapter 2, "Intelligent Use of Audio-Visual Materials," pp. 489-494.

²⁴ For example, Dale or Wittich and Schuller. Cf. the chapters on administration of teaching aids in their books: Dale's Chapter 1 in Part III, and Wittich and Schuller's Chapter XVII.

²⁵ See citation from Oberholtzer, p. 377, *supra*.

The desirable features of an instructional aids center include at least the following:

- (1) A full-time director, trained in theory and practice in the use of audio-visual aids, and capable of operating, repairing, and maintaining equipment in first-class order.
- (2) A specially constructed room where equipment may be stored, where a film, slide, and strip-film library may be developed. Whenever possible there should also be space for the previewing of material, particularly motion picture films.
- (3) Provision for services to teachers with regard to the use of materials, including projectionists to set up, operate, and move equipment.

Many schools find it difficult to provide all the desirable features of a well-organized teaching materials center, partly because of housing limitations, even in new buildings, and partly through failure to budget adequately for personnel. Each system, or large individual building, will need to make modifications in the prescription of the three features above as demanded by the limits of their financial resources, specially trained personnel, and space.

Functions of the Center. The educational leader rarely is involved personally in the administration of the center, since the duties add up to a full-time occupation. Therefore, his responsibility is largely centered around that of working with both the staff and the director of the center to facilitate the use of the teaching aids services by teachers and children and to suggest refinements in their use of matériel.

Hayden has suggested the following functions of the teaching aids center as some which leadership should be both familiar with and capable of implementing:

- (1) Providing information relative to materials and equipment available.
- (2) Suggesting criteria for selection and evaluation of different types of materials.
- (3) Offering instruction on the operation of new equipment or providing demonstrations.

- (4) Helping teachers to correlate instructional activities or in working out special teaching problems.
- (5) Suggesting professional studies and articles for improving instruction.
- (6) Suggesting techniques and methods for most effective utilization of materials.
- (7) Facilitating the ordering and scheduling of special materials and equipment.
- (8) Motivating teachers by giving them help and encouragement in their work. This may sometimes be accomplished through conferences, institutes, and in-service programs.
- (9) Encouraging teachers to make suggestions regarding the application of materials and equipment to their particular grade levels or subject matter areas.
- (10) Giving recognition to superior teaching and providing opportunities for exchange of information among teachers through group and committee activities.²⁶

It is apparent from a casual examination of the above list of responsibilities that the educational leader will be able to give only general counsel and guidance to the program. The duties involved are both too specialized and too time consuming for the local superintendent or building principal to assume. He can and should, however, ascertain that the teaching aids center be properly equipped, staffed, and used.

Even in small schools, where it is difficult to justify the employment of a full-time person for directing the work, the building principal errs if he concludes that he must assume complete charge of the program. Particularly in the small school, the effective operation of a teaching materials center depends greatly upon the coöperative planning and sharing of the program by *all* members of the staff. Thus, the leader's function should be restricted to *guidance* and *coördination* of the program, with the more specific activities delegated to other individuals. Through sharing of responsibility and modest adjustments in the teaching load of one or two teachers, it is possible for even the small school to establish the instructional

²⁶ Alice H. Hayden, "The Instructional Service Center," *Educational Leadership*, 5:240-243, January, 1948.

service center without the necessity of employing a full-time person to direct it.

Administrative Responsibilities in the Center. In the following list of 11 responsibilities which Dale suggests as "administrative," only three may be designated as those which the chief administrator in the school or small school system need accept as primarily his:

- (1) Selecting a director, supervisor or chairman,
- (2) Obtaining funds,
- (3) Obtaining equipment,
- (4) Selecting teaching materials,
- (5) Developing an in-service program,
- (6) Cataloging materials,
- (7) Repairing and up-keep of materials,
- (8) Arranging use of materials,
- (9) Operating a 16 mm. projector,
- (10) Previewing and evaluating materials,
- (11) Informing the public.²⁷

It is self-evident that the school leader will need to take an active part in the selection of the director (item 1), work for the securing of adequate funds (item 2), and be instrumental in keeping the public informed (item 11). He may wish also to be active in the establishment of an in-service program for teachers, although his contribution may consist of providing administrative guidance in the structure of the program rather than in shaping its contents.

Wittich and Schuller summed up the role of leadership in the administration of the teaching aids program in the following words:

The administrator should be a motivational force in the use of audio-visual materials. He may assume this responsibility himself or delegate it to others. In one form or another administrative leadership should assume responsibilities for the organization and coördination of effective evaluation and selection [of materials], for effective classroom use of audio-visual materials, for systematic acquisition of equipment, and for teacher

²⁷ Dale, *op. cit.*, p. 471.

participation in in-service . . . meetings devoted to improved audio-visual teaching techniques.²⁸

In the establishment of a well-organized teaching materials center, several key points deserve additional emphasis. In the first place, it is essential that leadership bear in mind the importance of the group-centered approach to developing and carrying out the program. Imposed programs usually do not change teachers' attitudes and behavior sufficiently to keep the program from being a mechanical one, divorced from the stream of educative experiences in the classroom, and making only trivial or incidental contributions to children.

Secondly, the selection of a high-powered, mechanically well-trained director can lead to weaknesses as well as strengths in the program. Deficiencies can result when arbitrary control of activities in connection with the center are so completely taken over by the director as to encourage teachers to relinquish responsibility for insightful articulation of their work. The specially trained person, and the center which he directs, must always be developed as a service agency to teachers. *Teachers* have the right to determine how materials shall be used to achieve the goals they have established with children. Given democratic leadership on the part of both the building principal and the director of the center, the staff will make wise decisions which, in the huge majority of cases, will make the teaching materials center the important resource it can be.

TEXTBOOKS AS TEACHING AIDS

Strangely enough, although textbooks and workbooks are the most widely used, and represent the largest single investment in teaching materials, they are rarely discussed as teaching aids. Perhaps this omission is due to the fact that they are such a classroom commonplace as to require little if any mention.

Probably no other teaching aid has influenced American

²⁸ Wittich and Schuller, *op. cit.*, p. 510.

education to a degree even remotely approaching that of textbooks. The first century or two of elementary education in New England and elsewhere were molded by the *New England Primer*, of which over 2,000,000 copies were sold in the thinly settled Atlantic seaboard area during the late seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. Then, while teaching in 1781-1782, Noah Webster prepared *The First Part of a Grammatical Institute of the English Language*²⁹ which for generations was to dominate—and later to share with the McGuffey Readers—the direction of a substantial portion of the elementary school day through grade 8.

Webster's speller had a fantastic sale. In 1775 it was selling at the rate of 500 copies per week and, by 1818, some 5,000,000 volumes had been sold.³⁰ A century after it was written (1880) its publishers reported that they had sold 1,000,000 copies per year for the past 40 years. In 1946, over a century and a half after its creation, 5,000 copies were distributed.³¹

The seven titles in the series of *Readers* compiled by William H. McGuffey were probably among the most influential educational elements of all time in influencing American values and cultural standards. Between their publication in 1837 and 1920 an estimated 122,000,000 volumes were sold.³² As late as 1947 a 70,000-copy edition was printed (albeit for distribution through antique shops for collectors and sentimentalists rather than for use in the schools).³³

The Textbook Controversy. The molding of curriculum content by textbooks has dwindled since the first part of the twentieth century, but their influence on both the selection of con-

²⁹ Later revised as *The American Spelling Book* (1817) and *The Elementary Spelling Book* (1829), commonly known as the old "Blue-backed Speller."

³⁰ American Textbook Publishers Institute, *Textbooks in Education* (New York, The Institute, 1949), p. 33.

³¹ *Ibid.*, p. 34.

³² A comprehensive story of the *Readers* appears in *The Story of the McGuffeys* by Alice McGuffey Ruggles (New York, American Book Co., 1950), Chapter XII.

³³ The sentimental attachment of older citizens for the McGuffey books found expression in 1947-1948 in Kentucky where the legislature was asked to place the *Readers* on the state adoption list.

tent and correlative teaching materials continues to be a matter of importance to administrative leadership, if for no other reason than the sizable investment of tax money they represent. In addition, educators who attempt to develop the coöperative staff approach to the development of curricula created for a unique school situation find their plans influenced by the fact that many teachers rely on texts for a sense of security and direction. Although texts have, since the 1920's, improved immensely in content, in format, and in flexibility, no complete solution has been found to the fact that the authors of such texts, although often miles away from a particular school and unfamiliar with its unique needs, tend to shape classroom experience.

Educational leadership has a responsibility for initiating and continuing a study of the role the faculty members believe that textbooks should play in the school program. At least three educational positions with regard to the use of texts may be identified.

- (1) The textbook should, in effect, determine the course of study. The responsibility of the administrator and staff involves wise selection and able use of the appropriate texts which shall guide their program.
- (2) Textbooks should be selected, insofar as possible, to "tie in" with the curriculum which the staff has constructed. The textbooks in this context become adjuncts to but not dictators of the program.
- (3) Textbooks should be used only when they make a contribution to the emerging program of the school. They cannot be selected in advance, but partial sets of books may be kept in a textbook library in ample supply and variety so that they may be checked out by teachers or children as needed.

It is unprofitable to engage in controversial argument with respect to these three viewpoints. This is due to the fact that both the nature of a given text and the use to which it may be put are so varied as to make generalizations misleading. In Dale's words:

Blanket approvals or disapprovals of textbooks are meaningless. A textbook may be the reprinting of a number of plays with very few comments or questions by the author of the anthology. The textbook in . . . elementary social science may be designed to aid in teaching pupils to look more intelligently at the concrete world about them. . . .

Some texts provide a backbone, a framework, a skeleton—and sometimes good flesh is on the bones. And some have provided a necessary systematic approach to development of generalizations, skills, and attitudes.³⁴

Able leaders neither urge the slavish use of texts nor denounce every text as a millstone hung around the neck of the creative teacher. It is the administrator's responsibility to encourage the resourceful and intelligent use of all proposed aids to teaching and learning which satisfy the criteria for effective education.

The Resourceful Use of Textbooks. The development of school programs uniquely suited to individual children and communities implies that the selection of textbooks as the sole determinant of the curriculum is an inconsistent policy if not an incongruous one. However, it is equally indefensible to take the position that they have no real contribution to offer to sound teaching and learning. Teachers should always welcome any aids or materials which help them discharge their responsibilities more adequately. The textbook, *under certain conditions*, may do this admirably. The resourceful use of textbooks is related to such points as the following:

- (1) Creative curriculum construction must *precede* the choice of supplementary books and texts. Books should be selected subsequently to help promote the program which is devised.
- (2) A passive attitude of blind textbook-following should be avoided. Teachers are to be free to choose elements from a variety of sources as professional judgment suggests, and

³⁴ Edgar Dale, "Improved Teaching Materials Contribute to Better Learning," Chapter X in *The American Elementary School*, XIIIth Yearbook of the John Dewey Society (New York, Harper and Brothers, 1953), pp. 242-243.

should weave these aids to learning into a coherent, well-knit body of experience.

- (3) Instead of complete dependence upon a *single* text to which all children are limited, there should be a rich variety of printed material available. For example, in the field of the junior high school social studies, it is desirable that children learn from more than one source some of the forces and causes leading up to the War Between the States.
- (4) Texts dealing with similar material, but ranging from the simple to the complex in reading difficulty, should be available in recognition of the special ability and maturity to be found within any group of children.
- (5) Teachers should avoid the beguiling but shallow solution to the problems of large classes by resorting to mass assignment of the same lesson. Some individual learners require more, some less, work than the uniform assignment provides.

Textbook Purchase Procedures. The procedures used in securing textbooks often help to determine their subsequent use by teachers. A dim view may be taken of several procedures in ordering texts because the selection processes involved tend to limit the resourceful use of such textbooks as are chosen.

- (1) One of the more detrimental procedures is the arbitrary large-quantity ordering of textbooks by the administrator without sufficient study by or consultation with the teachers who are expected to use them. Small "textbook committees" that work autocratically can reach decisions just as dubious as those made by the administrator who consults no one in making his choices.
- (2) Teacher groups, without benefit of educational leadership, are likely to make their recommendations for textbook purchases without sufficiently developed criteria for selection, and may be swayed by an opinionated member of the group. Again, if expected to meet after school, selection committees may be fatigued and anxious to go home—scarcely in the frame of mind for sustained study and reasoned choices. Leadership also is needed to insure that the committee has access to many types of available books and

that it is not swayed by "sales pressure" from the aggressive publishing house representative.

- (3) Occasionally, the chief administrator or the board of education decides to adopt only one set of books to simplify ordering and clerical work. Thus, the individual school staff which has reached the conclusion that its purposes will best be served by a variety of texts is deprived of its freedom of choice.³⁵

It is not intended here to propose what constitutes a "best" policy for the purchase of textbooks, but to point out that certain inept procedures need to be recognized and discarded by the educational leader and his staff. Frequently, the overzealous advocate of teacher freedom in the classroom has proposed eliminating all controls on individual teacher choices, with each faculty member ordering what he elects to use. Such a completely permissive situation, however, is not without defects. The staff should enjoy freedom to work out a program that holds together as a coherent whole, but should not ignore responsible group participation obligations. The administrator should be able to assure parents that their children will experience a well-planned, pedagogically sound, and well developed educational program. The freedom of irresponsibility for the individual teacher leads to educational anarchy.

Decisions concerning the selection and use of textbooks should be treated in the same manner as would matters of equivalent importance which involve other instructional aids. The basic principles which determine what films shall be used in the program, what field trips are worth arranging, or what maps and globes will be most helpful, apply with equal force to the question of what textbook to use. If the fundamental instructional values to be sought are first determined, the question concerning textbook selection will not constitute a great problem.

The Workbook. The expendable workbook is the descendant

³⁵ Even more questionable than the local arbitrary adoption is the state-wide adoption of single or multiple texts. Once commonplace, state control of texts is apparently dwindling rapidly.

of a primitive ancestor—the slate.³⁶ The first "true" workbook, however, appeared in 1801 in the form of an arithmetic drill book written by one Daniel Adams who provided blank space for ciphering and recording solutions to problems.³⁷

Many of the principles, and much of the previous discussion, concerning textbooks applies to the workbook. Under proper guidance, and with a staff which has a clear conception of the basic purposes of and procedures in a good educational program, workbooks have a limited value in providing children with additional needed practice. However, it is important to point out several detriments which their uncritical or injudicious use can incur:

- (1) Workbooks can easily become a needless crutch on which the inept teacher leans too heavily. Under such circumstances, the *workbook* does the teaching, with the teacher acting merely as monitor or referee. This is pernicious because it undermines an element in good teaching—the human relationship between learner and teacher—and ignores the need to plan learning situations wisely chosen in terms of a unique combination of conditions in a particular school.
- (2) Workbook authors, with no possible means of knowing the needs and problems of a given group of individual children and teachers, can only aim their writing at an "average" group which has no real existence. Without casting any aspersions on either the competence or good intent of workbook authors, it seems reasonable to propose that the substitution of his educational goals for those of the teacher cannot bring equal profit to the children.
- (3) The over-use of workbooks can inhibit creative procedures in teaching. Even a carefully designed workbook cannot of itself contribute to the finding and testing of meanings as can a more personalized approach to subject matter evolved by the teacher.
- (4) Workbooks can have a negative influence if foisted on children who are not motivated to use them by previous experiences which lend point and purpose to the practice or drill the workbook supplies.

³⁶ American Textbook Publishers Institute, *op. cit.*, p. 111.

³⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 38.

As Dale phrases it:

We need practice materials and specific devices to bridge the gap between rich, direct, personal experience and . . . abstract, generalized, impersonal concepts. . . . Perhaps this bridging can be done through more adroit and less mechanical workbooks.³⁸

But workbooks must be used with great discretion so that they are not treated as "cheap substitutes" for first-hand experiences—which they can never be. The school day should never be flooded with drill by teachers who are professionally inadequate or simply too lazy to throw themselves into more creative work.

SUMMARY

Anatole France was doubtless guilty of considerable oversimplification when he wrote that the whole art of teaching was ". . . only the art of awakening the natural curiosity of young minds. . ." Yet, there is much truth in what he said.

Teaching aids of all kinds are a useful means of awakening curiosity and have the added advantage of helping to satisfy and direct the inquiring minds of children and youth. Unfortunately, administrative leadership, preoccupied with other concerns, has not always functioned well in helping teachers to make experiences more meaningful to the learner. Chapter Thirteen proposed an active role for superintendents and principals, as well as consultants, in improving both the mechanical and the pedagogical aspects of the use of instructional aids.

Common-sense practices were suggested with respect to administrative-staff planning in facilitating the use of audio-visual aids and multi-sensory teaching. Discussed at some length, too, was the teaching materials center which was conceived as an excellent resource for the school as long as it is kept from becoming a private domain or "empire" for a visual aids director who is more interested in over-protecting equip-

³⁸ Edgar Dale, "Improved Teaching Materials Contribute to Better Learning," *op. cit.*, p. 243.

ment or in pre-planning an elaborate program than in enhancing the quality and savor of an emerging school program.

Textbooks, commonly dismissed with a phrase in many treatments of instructional aids, were examined in the closing pages of the chapter.

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CHAPTER FOURTEEN

APPLYING EDUCATIONALLY SOUND VALUES TO PERSONNEL POLICIES



THE four previous chapters were concerned with the organization of the school in such ways as promise a convenient structure upon which good personnel policies may be based, particularly as these relate to work with the individual child and groups of children. These chapters were intended to imply a persistent concern for the well-being of children and youth—even when the topics considered were sometimes of a mechanical or procedural nature. The present chapter treats the work of the leader as it is influenced by his concern for, and sensitivity to, creative personnel policies consistent with good human relations. Such policies help to weld those people concerned with the work of the school into a coöperative team.

At least some schools merit criticism for over-emphasizing the importance of smooth mechanical operation, irrespective of what it does to human beings. This tendency to place the values of "efficiency" above those of human worth can become a major flaw marring the effectiveness of the very personnel practices that "efficient organization" is presumably designed to facilitate. When this happens, it is often because the administrative leader looks upon thoroughly mechanized personnel practices

as ends in themselves, forgetting that the purpose of organization is to serve people, not the reverse.

The following discussion of personnel practices embodies the conviction that schools exist solely to serve children, and through them the society of which they are a part. The role of creative school administration is identified with the processes of applying human values to school situations in which individuals must learn to work together with increasing skill and with developing common purposes.

OPPORTUNITIES FOR LEADERSHIP IN WORK WITH SCHOOL PERSONNEL

Some Significant Leadership Opportunities. "School personnel" as used in this chapter refers to three rather well defined groups: the children enrolled in the school, the professional persons who work directly with the children, and the miscellaneous individuals sometimes classified as "civil service" or "non-certificated" personnel. Leadership has the absorbing and personally rewarding opportunity to help create with this complex of personalities (marked by unpredictable variations in maturity, background, value systems, and purposes), an environment which will motivate children to become contributive participants in community life.

While the administrative leader will necessarily be concerned with the establishment and operation of a considerable number of personnel services for children, some of which will be discussed in a succeeding section of this chapter, he also can attempt to find opportunities to come into personal contact with children individually and in groups. The manner in which he manages himself in these situations will often help to determine the success of the pupil personnel policies. Teachers readily sense the sincerity and integrity of leadership—or their absence—by the quality of the administrator's interest in and interaction with children.

Equally important to the practices which help to establish good relationships with children is the leader's aptitude for strengthening his rapport with adults. No doubt there are

benevolent dictatorships which are more acceptable to some teachers than are democratic schools headed by austere and impersonal individuals, so important is the administrator's personality. The leader more than anyone else sets the tone and determines the emotional level of the personnel practices which affect teachers. In a similar manner, personnel practices which relate to the work of the non-certificated persons on the staff can ill-afford to ignore the importance of a warmth of relationships and a concern for human welfare.

In the sections which follow an effort will be made to show how leaders can attain two objectives by the same procedure: (1) Helping to establish personnel policies which will assist people in the school to live more effective personal lives, and (2) helping to build into these policies a concern for human beings so real and so palpable that the thinking and behaving of children and all other school employees move from the impersonal and cold to the warmth and friendliness of life in a wholesome family setting.

Social and Legal Considerations. Both responsibilities and opportunities of leadership are shaped by certain elements which influence personnel policies. One of these is the social factor, a benevolent one, created by the fact that American schools, by tradition and by present choice, are committed to the practice of democracy. If children are to emerge from the educational program equipped with personalities that will be effective in a democracy, it needs to be recognized in the personnel practices of the school that children must *exercise* democratic skills. Teachers who are capable of guiding children's experiences democratically need themselves to work in a democratic context so that their own skills in the ways of democracy are constantly kept vital. Thus, creative leaders are morally committed to democratic values. Indeed, in view of American traditions, the ideals and aims of the school's personnel policies literally should serve to strengthen democratic ideals by personifying such values.¹

Bearing on the school are certain legal considerations which

¹ Cf. Wilbur A. Yauch, *Improving Human Relations in School Administration* (New York, Harper and Brothers, 1949), pp. 9-11.

must be observed, some of which place limitations on personnel policies and serve to shape others. To use a few illustrations: school law in some states decrees that a child shall not be enrolled in school before he reaches a specified age, a fact which can preclude the use of public school funds for nursery education or to support four-year-old kindergartens.² Another example of legal restriction is the universal requirement that teachers hold a state certificate, one which sometimes limits them to teaching at prescribed grade levels or in specified subject matter areas. No matter how valid the judgment of the local administrator with regard to the teacher's competence to teach other grades or subjects, his action is influenced by the decrees of the state. One more illustration: the time and length of the school day and year are usually determined by the local board of education, with due regard for pertinent state statutes. Decisions concerning the school calendar are thus limitations on the freedom of the local staff to vary from the practice established for the district as a whole.

Limitations may be regarded as hindrances to human action or they may be considered merely as a definition of the scope of action. The unimaginative leader will accept the limitation resignedly as a description of the boundaries to his freedoms as well as the confines of his actions. The creative administrator will accept the framework within which he must learn to act, but he constantly thinks in terms of the freedoms he enjoys rather than of the restrictions that govern him.

PUPIL PERSONNEL: SOME RESPONSIBILITIES AND CHALLENGES

The Scope of Pupil Personnel Policies. Efficiently structured pupil personnel services and practices were initiated in public education a century or more ago by a desire to keep systematic records of children's attendance. This data-keeping was later augmented by health records, academic achievement scores,

² A variation of such legislation in some states permits the use of local public funds for pre-kindergarten programs but withholds state reimbursement.

and classification and promotion information, until today record keeping often requires staff members employed for no other purpose than that of maintaining the records. Sands³ has suggested the range of activities which comprise pupil services in the following list:

- (1) *Child accounting*; continuous census of those of school age.
- (2) *Compulsory attendance*; entrance ages; terminal ages; laws.
- (3) *Attendance and non-attendance*; work permits; tardiness.
- (4) *Classification of pupils*; age-grade distributions, homogeneous, heterogeneous grouping; class size.
- (5) Progress through school; promotion; retardation; over-age, under-age studies; elimination from school.
- (6) *Reports*; marks, grades; notifying parents of progress.
- (7) *Testing of pupils*; intelligence, achievement, aptitudes, interests, attitudes; testing programs; use of information; psychological services.
- (8) *Health examination and program*; assembling information.
- (9) *Visiting teachers*; collecting information from home; psychiatric social worker programs.
- (10) *Cumulative records for pupil-personnel services*; types of information; forms; administration of records.
- (11) *Classroom guidance*; group guidance; types of programs.
- (12) *Individual counseling*; use of records; directive, non-directive counseling; case studies.
- (13) *Curricular adjustments*; special programs for handicapped; special adjustments for atypical pupils.
- (14) *Administrative integration of pupil-personnel services*; articulation of school units; coördination of all personnel services for case studies.⁴

In Chapters Ten and Eleven, which examined grouping and promotion, attention was given to the importance of establishing organizational procedures which took into account the nature and needs of children. The arguments for creative school

³ Lester B. Sands, "The Administration of Pupil Personnel," Chapter VI in J. T. Wahlquist, *et al.*, *The Administration of Public Education* (New York, The Ronald Press, 1952).

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 171. (Italics not in the original.)

organization with respect to promotion and grouping hold with equal force for procedures associated with the list of 14 items given above. Neither mechanical efficiency, nor the clerical staff's convenience, but the nurture of social and intellectual maturity in the young, is the end to be served.

Leadership in the Improvement of Pupil Personnel Practices. As teachers and administrators examine present personnel practices used in the school, both should bear in mind four points which should serve to improve the quality of the modifications which are made:

- (1) Teachers should be urged to propose ideas which will make pupil personnel policies educationally sound and help to maintain records to serve as resources for studying and interpreting child behavior.
- (2) New procedures that are proposed should be checked to see that they are congruent with the staff's educational purposes.
- (3) Pupil records should be articulated with psychological, guidance, health, and testing programs.
- (4) Evaluative procedures⁵ should be applied continuously to the revision of pupil personnel policies and to gauging the strengths and the shortcomings of the services involved.

The terms "record keeping" and "classroom guidance" are used below to illustrate leadership-in-action in the process of refining policies directly affecting children.

Record keeping. The various records that are maintained by certain members of the staff may be of considerable value in judging the progress and difficulties children are experiencing. Most schools keep some sort of data on each child, in addition to attendance statistics, which follow him through school in the form of a cumulative record. While the principle underlying the use of cumulative records is sound, some questions may be raised regarding the extent to which they are adequately used.

In some instances, a partial explanation for the limited use of records may lie in the fact that they have been constructed by administrators with too little thought given to how they would be used by teachers. Such forms represent a judgment

⁵ Cf. Chapter Five for a previous discussion of evaluation in action.

as to what pupil data are important, and are made by someone other than the person who will use them. For the labor involved in the cumulative record procedures to be justified, leaders must work with teachers in constructing ones they *can* and *will* use, and, furthermore, see that such data are filed in accessible places so that their use is not restricted by red tape. The printed forms developed should represent a staff consensus growing out of questions such as the following:

(1) *What information is it important for all teachers to know? Shall cumulative records include the judgments of teachers, or merely factual data?*

As a basic principle it is suggested that the cumulative records, which will be passed on from teacher to teacher and kept in the school long after the child has graduated, be composed of only those factual data which can be objectively evaluated. Personal judgments in the form of teacher comments should probably remain with the teacher who made them.

(2) *Who shall serve as custodian for the records, the central office or the classroom teacher?*

A simple answer to this question might be that the central office should keep those records which pertain to child accounting, while the classroom teacher retains those data which bear directly on the educational development of the child.

(3) *What form shall the record take?*

Regardless of the exact shape and size of the record form, it seems reasonable to suggest that it be one which is most usable for teachers, neither so elaborate as to be a burden nor so brief as to be vague or ambiguous. The data should be so arranged that they are immediately accessible and in readable form at a time when the teacher is most anxious to have them. It is likely that this will involve the use of a folder-type of form, in which the teacher may file the more personal records of the child, such as anecdotal summaries, behavior diaries, samples of the child's work, and records of parent conferences. It is also appropriate that a record form, if cumulative, be arranged so that the teacher may rapidly decipher the pattern of the child's progress through the years he has been in school.

The function of leadership in the development of a record

form is to help the teachers devise workable forms. If the outcome does not suit the leader's administrative needs, brief supplementary forms can be devised and kept in the office, thus leaving the faculty free to construct and use records which they accept as suited to their classroom and child-study requirements.

Classroom Guidance. In Chapter Twelve, reference was made to the guidance program as it operates in the school as a whole. Now, in the context of pupil personnel services, it is re-examined as a part of the teacher's classroom responsibility. Most elementary schools and many junior high schools do not now provide special guidance counselors, so this important function usually must be assumed by the classroom teacher.

Some of the characteristic guidance practices that can best be communicated to the teacher in daily contacts with a competent building principal (assuming that his time is so apportioned that he can invest a reasonable share of it in interacting with the faculty) may readily be summarized. Improving pupil personnel practices with reference to daily guidance involves:

- (1) Indicating to teachers that there is an intimate relationship between guidance and effective teaching, but that guidance involves measures that go beyond the usual interpretation of teaching. To make guidance and teaching synonymous is to over-generalize the relationship between them.
- (2) Making certain that teachers see that guidance is highly individualized. This implies a clear recognition of the importance of knowing boys and girls as unique personalities with unique backgrounds, problems, and developmental learning patterns.
- (3) Introducing the staff, as needed, to the kinds of instruments, devices, and information it is desirable to obtain and use with all children. These might include: anecdotal records, behavior diaries, sociograms, records of personal interviews, as well as test data, health information, etc.⁶
- (4) Supplying guidance in procedures for the evaluation and interpretation of accumulated child guidance information.

⁶ Cf. p. 162, *supra*.

Collection of the data is merely the first step in the process. The intelligent understanding and subsequent use of information is the heart of the guidance program. It is here that the group process may be effectively used.

Leadership will need to provide patient direction in each phase of the developing pupil guidance program. In addition to helping the total staff build mutually agreeable policies, the principal or local superintendent will need to work with each teacher so that the program is carried out intelligently and consistently. In the process he must keep in perspective the original purpose of the activity—the development of procedures which will aid the growth and direction of individual children. The mechanical aspects of a guidance program must not become more important than individual children.

Especially in smaller districts, the leader may also make a noteworthy contribution to guidance activities through his personal relations with children, both individually and collectively. If children gain the feeling that he is their friend, that he is primarily concerned with their welfare, an atmosphere of trust and confidence can be created. If each child feels that he may come to the principal for friendly counsel and helpful advice, it not only sets the tone for the school but permits the leader to operate to good purpose in the occasional situations in which misunderstanding and strained relationships arise between teacher and child.

EDUCATIONAL VALUES AND TEACHER PERSONNEL

When a teacher proves to be something less than effective in his contribution to the growth of children, there is always the possibility that defective leadership, as expressed in staff personnel policies, is at fault. Sound administrative values need constantly to be applied in the process of continually reviewing personnel practices as they apply to the teaching staff. In this section a sampling of desirable practices is proposed to illustrate the application of values which appear to be sound.

Leadership Opportunities and Responsibilities in Work with Teacher Personnel. As a result of the current teacher shortage, and the inevitable necessity of employing some persons with meager preparation, the role of leadership in elementary and junior high schools has assumed a new measure of importance. During the era of static or declining enrollments, *circa* 1935, the leader's task often was appreciably simpler than it is now, largely because of minimum turn-over of teachers. He and the staff could work slowly and deliberately on the development of long-term policies, with reasonable assurance that the staff would remain relatively stable in composition. He could also be sure that when vacancies occurred they would be filled only after a careful selection of the new members from among a wide range of candidates. Older school administrators probably look back with nostalgia to the days when their responsibilities in the school seemed, and in all probability were, fewer and less onerous.

On the other hand, there were certain deficiencies in the seemingly halcyon days of times past which have become apparent only as the profession has attained a more mature status. It was not uncommon until 1935 or 1940 for teachers to be prepared in two years or even less by normal schools which often emphasized "pattern teaching" and took a short-sighted view of the complexity of child development in the socio-cultural environment.

The leader must recognize that he has a great distance to go in helping the staff to attain mature insights into education because of the unprecedented additions to professional knowledge in the recent decades. The fields of child development, educational psychology, sociology, cultural anthropology, pediatrics, and psychiatry, for instance, have made giant strides during the past twenty-five years. Much that has been learned in these disciplines has had concomitant meaning for the programs of elementary and junior high schools.⁷ Teacher edu-

⁷ American Association of Teachers Colleges, *Child Growth and Development Emphases in Teacher Education* (Oneonta, N. Y., State Teachers College, 1944), Chapter III.

tion is just now coming of age.⁸ As it does, graduates may be expected to be the beneficiaries of improved undergraduate experiences and to be better prepared to guide children wisely and well. Their influence on the schools will not be felt to a determinative degree for some time, however, and leadership cannot "mark time" in the meanwhile.

Some of the opportunities and responsibilities of administrators in the present era result from the scarcity of professionally qualified classroom workers, further intensified by skyrocketing enrollments. Other opportunities are becoming evident as clearer understandings of democracy are grasped by school workers and as such terms as "group processes"⁹ and "intercultural education"¹⁰ acquire greater meanings of import for the school curriculum. Taken together, present trends and circumstances suggest various criteria which the leader may use to appraise the ways in which he can best help change the "inner world" or "private self" which governs teachers' responses to the environment—including children—which is about them.

Criteria for Achieving Desirable Teacher Personnel Policies. In order to build a sound organization for the coöperative interaction of human beings the creative leader may wish to consider the 12 criteria which follow. To what extent do teacher personnel policies:

(1) *Strengthen the teacher's understanding of the meaning of democracy.* Democracy is a perishable product, whose meaning can be preserved only in practice.¹¹ No amount of intellectual study or verbal discussion will keep it alive. If the leader wishes to contribute to the preservation and improvement of democratic ideals on the part of teachers, democracy must be exemplified in all the practices in the school. By this

⁸ Harold Rugg, *The Teacher of Teachers* (New York, Harper and Brothers, 1952), Part II.

⁹ For a compilation of research in the field, cf. Dorwin Cartwright and Alvin Zander, *Group Dynamics* (Evanston, Row, Peterson and Co., 1953).

¹⁰ Cf. Hilda Taba, *et al.*, *Intergroup Education in Public Schools* (Washington, D. C., American Council on Education, 1952).

¹¹ George B. deHuszar, *Practical Applications of Democracy* (New York, Harper and Brothers, 1945), Chapter III.

process only will they permeate the classroom practices of each teacher, and thus touch the lives of all children.

(2) *Improve the teacher's skill in democratic processes.* As with its values, democratic skills are learned and kept serviceable through practice. It is not unusual for teachers, particularly new ones, to be unskilled in democratic process. If one were to examine the restricted experiences which many teachers have had as members of a democratic group during their twelve years of public schooling and their four or five years of college preparation, one would not be surprised to find adults more adapted to autocratic domination than to democratic processes. While improvement at the teacher education level is taking place, much remains to be done, and one must look to strongly motivated leadership at the public school level for help.

(3) *Help him to develop insights into human growth and development at all levels.* Teachers need to understand a great deal more about children than is now a part of the professional knowledge possessed by the average instructor. The field of human development has grown by leaps and bounds in the past twenty-five years. It requires most painstaking effort to keep informed, especially to a point where pertinent advice can be tendered to others.

(4) *Make him feel secure without becoming complacent.* Every human being requires a sense of security in order to maintain his mental health. One needs to feel that the future is not too unknown, and that if one does his best he will achieve an adequate basis for security. The educational leader needs to foster situations in which the individual teacher is free to devote his main energies to the task of guiding children, without wasting energy worrying over his status or future. The possibility of complacency as a problem is minimized in the professional staff where peer group pressure urges that each member do his fair share of the work.

(5) *Encourage the teacher to strengthen his professional resources.* No teacher, at any time in his career, will ever know all there is to know about teaching. Professional knowledge is simply growing at too great a pace to permit it. The

leader has the responsibility of constantly inciting growth and improvement.

(6) *Stimulate him to improve his personal-cultural background.* Many teachers take their work so seriously that they tend to live personal lives outside of school which are not consistent with mental health. Teachers should be assisted to maintain perspective in human affairs, and to reach out to broaden and deepen their own appreciation of life. The educational program in the classroom will intimately reflect the cultural levels on which teachers seek to live.

(7) *Create in the teacher the conviction that he is treated fairly and frankly by his colleagues.* Convictions are born in experience. The teacher will arrive at the conclusion that fairness and frankness are maintained in the school only when such is actually the case. The perceptive leader so conducts himself that he is worth emulating in these matters.

(8) *Encourage socially significant adult participation in the life of the community.* Too often school workers lead an insular existence, separated from the mainland of life. Teachers have hesitated to participate in community affairs for a variety of reasons, one of which is reluctance to become involved in local controversies. The leader worthy of the name is one who not only encourages participation in significant activities, but protects his colleagues from unreasonable attacks and unwarranted recrimination that may result from active participation in community life.

(9) *Build the teacher's perspective with respect to the role of the school as a significant force in strengthening democratic social organization.* A study of the nation's antecedents reveals a remarkable and persistent urge to create an improved way of life.¹² The school has played a relatively passive role in this effort. If America is to achieve its aspirations it will need a great deal of help from all social agencies, including the school.

(10) *Motivate him to keep informed with regard to social, economic, and political trends so that he can act as an intelligent*

¹² Cf. George Gallup and Saul F. Rae, *The Pulse of Democracy* (New York, Simon and Schuster, 1940).

gent adult in the community. This amounts to encouraging the teacher to read current sources for information about local and distant events which have pertinence both to the school's program and to life in its entirety. It also includes attending meetings and forums which are designed to inform or instruct the public.

(11) *Encourage the teacher to engage in recreational activities which serve to satisfy his mental hygiene needs, and to contribute to those of his associates.* Not everyone needs a hobby, but everyone should have some activity which transports him out of the teaching field for refreshment and rejuvenation. It makes little difference whether the activities include golf, hooking rugs, bridge, reading, or merely sitting under a tree and contemplating life—just so long as they are not invariably linked to education and are not uniformly sedentary or solitary.

(12) *Help the teacher to use the material resources of the school and community to meet the needs of children effectively.* Material resources refer to more than the standard materials normally used in the classroom, such as textbooks or art materials. Within every school and community are diversified resources for learning—interesting people and things, significant local activities, etc.¹³

Helping the New Teacher. In these days of rapid turn-over in teaching personnel, the problem of orienting the new teacher to his responsibilities is becoming increasingly acute. The extent to which the leader is capable of introducing the new teacher into the activities of the school so that he immediately becomes a working member of the faculty team will be a measure of his success with the orientation program. At this point a protest might be voiced against overdoing the practice of segregating new teachers in order to give them special orientation and instructions. This practice serves to emphasize their strangeness, and presents the danger of creating an inadvertent split in the faculty. Leaders may wish to consider the

¹³ Cf. Chapter Six. Also, cf. National Society for the Study of Education, *The Community School*, 52nd Yearbook, Part II (Chicago, The University of Chicago Press, 1953).

following suggestions for helping orient and induct the new teacher into the school program:

- (1) New teachers should have an opportunity to become acquainted with the school and the community before the first day of school. It is suggested that they be invited to arrive in town several days in advance of the opening of school, to allow time during which to engage in the following activities:
 - a. A search for a suitable place to live, with advice and help from the school staff.
 - b. An opportunity to have a long and leisurely conference with the principal, at which time such local publications as the faculty handbook can be presented and explained.
 - c. A social affair in which the new teachers may become personally acquainted with other members of the staff.
 - d. An introduction to pertinent facts about the composition and character of the community presented in some convenient and simple form.
- (2) Ample opportunities should be provided for the new teachers to work in their assigned classrooms before the children arrive. They will need help in organizing materials, learning where to find school-supplied instructional aids, and deciding what can be done to make the room more attractive for children.
- (3) As experienced principals know, the regular members of the staff have interpretations of the meaning of certain administrative rules and regulations which are often at variance with those held by the administrator. The new teacher should be encouraged to get first-hand knowledge of how *teachers* feel about certain details. Encouragement should be frankly given to the new teacher to seek much of his needed information from other members of the staff.
- (4) Instead of the new teacher being crammed full of a great deal of specific detail during the first few days of the new term, he might be permitted to accumulate this information over a period of time, with the right to learn at his own rate of speed being recognized as indispensable to understanding. If other teachers accept the responsibility for

helping the new teacher, this information will be learned under meaningful circumstances.

- (5) Detailed explanations and interpretations of voluminous courses of study, if such are used, should be withheld during the early part of the term. They can be confusing and frustrating compendiums which do not help the new teacher to find his place in the program if suddenly thrust upon him.
- (6) In general, the most successful orientation program is one which allows the new teacher a maximum of time to get acquainted with the other teachers, the new classroom environment, and the group of children whom he will teach. A relaxed, informal program seems to work well in achieving this goal.

Meaningful Teachers' Meetings. The heart of the democratically organized school is the building teachers' meeting. It is here that the faculty has the opportunity to determine the policies which will govern the actions and programs of all. Since this matter has been discussed in some detail by one of the writers, only the major considerations will be reviewed here.¹⁴

Successful teachers' meetings depend upon the extent to which *teachers* get satisfaction from them. If they prove to be indispensable to the satisfactory conduct of the school, there will be no problem of persuading the staff to devote the necessary time to them. It almost goes without saying that the meetings must be a forum for teachers, rather than an opportunity for the principal to "rule the roost."¹⁵

In order to assure teachers that meetings will be theirs, it is important for the principal to provide some means whereby they may control the agenda. A "planning committee" elected by the teachers to coöperate with the principal in setting up the programs is often an effective device. Whether a member of the staff or the principal chairs the meetings is a matter of little importance. Leadership in the meeting should be shared

¹⁴ Yauch, *op. cit.*, Chapter IV.

¹⁵ For a pertinent commentary cf. Dwight L. Arnold, "Morale as Influenced by Participation in Group Planning and Action," *The Ohio State University Educational Research Bulletin*, 32:202-211, November 11, 1953.

by all, with those who have the most to contribute at a given moment temporarily serving as leaders.

The content of meetings should include those things teachers think it is important to discuss and decide. The principal may wish to make suggestions, but final choices must be left to the teachers if the meetings are to prove genuinely valuable. The principal must restrain any undue enthusiasm for using teachers' meetings for the purpose of proposing, discussing, and solving his own administrative problems, especially those which do not directly involve the coöperation or participation of teachers. These obviously must be settled, but much of the administrative detail which normally clutters up faculty meetings can be handled in a clearly worded, written bulletin. Wherever possible, it is desirable to reduce routine considerations to a minimum.

A great deal of discussion and thought has been given to the desirability, and even the necessity, of holding staff meetings on school time. It is not the intention here to intensify this controversy, except to point out that, in most cases, pressures from teachers to have staff planning scheduled on school time (and as an integral part of the school day) may be the result of the unwise management of previous meetings. It is the experience of some leaders that the demands for school-time planning tend to diminish when the values of after-school meetings increase. Teachers in general may be characterized as intensely conscientious and willing to spend any reasonable amount of time in order to do their work efficiently. When the teachers' meeting becomes one of the means by which teachers may achieve *their* purposes, then there is apparently a reduction in the demands for time taken away from children in order to plan for their education.

If teachers' meetings can be a means by which a democratically controlled staff coöperatively achieves its common agreements, the creative leader is justified in spending whatever energy is needed to improve them. Teachers' meetings cannot serve a democratic end unless they are democratically organized and administered.

The Educational Leader and Teachers' Councils. The teachers' council is a device whereby all members of an educational staff have a voice in determining some of the factors which control their conditions of employment and service. The term "council" as here used differs from the "educational council" discussed in Chapter Six. In this instance, the "council" is the entire faculty (or in large systems, groups of teachers elected by the whole), for the purpose of counseling with the administration on teacher welfare, salary schedules, working conditions, developments pending in state school laws, the planning of new school buildings, and similar important considerations. There is no reason in theory why the educational council and the teachers' council could not be identical, with one council serving both purposes. But, in order to clarify the distinction in *purposes* (one educational, the other teacher welfare), the teachers' council is treated as a separate organization.

The teachers' council which best exemplifies democratic organization is the one in which *all* professional staff members meet as peers, with the non-certificated personnel included, perhaps on an "associate" membership basis. It thus embraces a cross-section of the whole school system: administrators, supervisors, business office staff, custodial staff, and, conceivably, lay representation. This over-all body can consider all factors that directly affect the welfare of all personnel.

In too many instances, the formation of the teachers' council is the outgrowth of some critical problem which seriously needs attention which has not been forthcoming from the board of education or the superintendent. In such cases, the council is likely to be borne out of some conflict with authority, and tends to act as a pressure group.

Leadership should anticipate the possibility of differences of opinion by helping to create such a council *before* conflicts occur. It makes a great deal of difference in both the attitudes of the members, and the success they will achieve in working together, if the *initiation* of the council is made by administrative leadership. The development of a workable council demonstrates that the administrator realizes that others have ideas

and needs that must be expressed, and creates an atmosphere of good will and coöperation. This does not assure the leader of amicable settlement of all problems, but it does lay a firm foundation, and clears away some of the mutual mistrust and misunderstanding which all too often are present in school organization.

Several suggestions for the successful establishment and organization of the council can be summarized briefly:

- (1) Membership should be widespread in order to cover every kind of position represented on the staff. If the group is not unwieldy, all employees should participate.
- (2) Administrative representation is mandatory if the council is to serve as a clearinghouse of ideas. No good is served by a meeting of staff without the administration. It leads too frequently to the presentation of "demands" which may only arouse antagonism and resistance.
- (3) The administrator on the council must carefully resist the temptation to use the group as a "sounding board" or even a "spark plug" for his pet enthusiasms. His personal interests should be balanced by his concern for the interests of others.
- (4) Activities of the council should be varied, including concrete problems of teacher welfare, provision for social activities and programs, and some consideration of the teachers' more remote professional concerns, such as active participation in regional, state, and national teacher organizations.
- (5) While some formal procedures for the orderly conduct of business, such as a constitution, by-laws, methods of selecting officers, dues, and so forth, are necessary, these should be kept in the background. Success will depend somewhat on the degree to which the council is kept flexible and subject to the wishes of the group.

The success of the council depends almost entirely on the coöperation of the chief administrator. If he is a creative educational leader he will give the organization his fullest support and sympathetic coöperation, and will engage actively in helping to make it represent teacher interests.

Procedures in Teacher Employment and in Termination of Services. Coöperative selection of staff members has long been cited in educational literature as a desirable procedure, but little of the theory has seeped into practice.¹⁶ In most instances, teachers are selected (subject to board of education confirmation) by the superintendent, his central office colleagues, or, in a few cases, by the principal of the individual building. Rarely are teachers asked to select the colleagues with whom they must work.

There is evidence to support the assertion that when teachers are invited to help in the selection, the new staff member is likely to be a better person, and will most certainly be more acceptable to the group. Techniques have been devised which take account of relevant legal responsibilities of administrator and the board of education. The step-by-step process of co-operative selection may be described as follows:

- (1) When vacancies occur, the staff is apprised of that fact. If not previously constructed, a list of desirable qualifications and specifications is drawn up by the entire staff. This represents a verbal picture of the kind of personnel to be sought.
- (2) The administrator writes to appropriate teacher placement agencies or similar sources and asks that credentials or recommendations be sent for candidates who seem to qualify.
- (3) The entire staff, or a committee selected by the staff, then examines the credentials in collaboration with the administrator. Out of the total list of candidates recommended from many different sources an agreed-upon number is chosen as most likely prospects.
- (4) These individuals are invited to visit the school or school system. A program of social activities and professional conferences are planned which provide staff members with opportunities to become acquainted with the candidates.
- (5) After all prospects have been interviewed, a preferential

¹⁶ Wilbur A. Yauch, "A Study of the Possibilities for Educational Leadership" (unpublished doctoral field project, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1936).

ballot is cast in order to discover the rank order of preference.

- (6) The results of the ballot are conveyed to the chief administrator with a positive recommendation. Since the board of education is the legal employing agency, the administrator subsequently proposes the candidates for approval.¹⁷

This technique of selection is not mere fabrication. Both of the authors have, with minor variations, used the procedure effectively in widely differing educational situations: a public school system, a campus laboratory school, a state university, and a state teachers college. It represents more than wishful thinking, as the experience of many educational leaders doubtless will attest.

The problem of coöperative selection of the staff is complicated seriously when large numbers of people are involved. Of necessity, certain stages of the process need to be by-passed, and the whole program becomes more impersonal. However, the basic principles of coöperative selection may be retained even in large school systems. Even in cities ranging from 100,000 upwards, some general participation in the choice of personnel is feasible. At the very least, some members of a given building faculty and the principal can review the credentials of available candidates and request that certain individuals be assigned to their building.

Terminating the employment of an inept or incompetent teacher is appreciably more difficult than appointing him. No one seems to have evolved a suitable plan, coöperative or otherwise, for dismissal of undesirable personnel. Ideally, if the selection process were refined and perfected, there would be virtually no need to inaugurate a dismissal procedure. But in actual practice there are teachers who ought not to be continued in service. The difficulty is accentuated by the fact that many states now have tenure laws which make severance of service almost impossible unless gross incompetence, immorality, malfeasance, or a similarly serious charge is proved.

Assuming that the staff has some latitude in deciding who

¹⁷ These generalizations pertain to smaller school districts.

shall continue in service, it is theoretically possible to set up a reasonable personnel procedure for reviewing questionable cases. It involves a willingness to establish some systematic technique for the collection of pertinent evidence of lack of success on which the staff may pass judgment. The following process has been established by one institution¹⁸ where it is now working with some success:

- (1) The teacher group, in coöperation with the administrator, agrees that continued success in teaching shall be evaluated.
- (2) The total staff defines what it thinks constitutes good teaching. This definition has been translated into a series of three evaluation forms: one for judging the coöperativeness of the individual members, a second for judging the evidences of growth and scholarly abilities, and a third on which students may evaluate the competence of the teacher as they see it.
- (3) These forms are used by the staff, with the tabulation made by the leader; the leader is the only person who possesses all the facts contained in the summaries.
- (4) As a result of the tabulations, rank orders are derived for all faculty members. Individual teachers are permitted to know where they stand in the total, but have no information concerning where others stand.

Out of the data derived from these forms, the administrator is in a position to know whom the staff considers good, average, and poor, and in what specific areas their competencies lay. With this presumably impersonal data, he is in a position to confer with those individuals who rated low on the scale. Some may be encouraged to improve. Where the clearly incompetent person is concerned the administrator must face courageously the matter of his dismissal.

Whether or not this procedure represents a justifiable method of establishing a basis for dismissal is of course open to debate. It has the strong merit of inviting the staff to coöperate in passing judgment. Also, while one may be critical of the accuracy

¹⁸ The allusion is to the Department of Education, Northern Illinois State Teachers College, DeKalb.

and/or maturity of the individual staff members' judgments in marking evaluation forms, the procedure is probably superior to administrative judgments *per se*. Success in using this procedure would depend almost wholly on the confidence the members of a staff had in the integrity and honesty of their leader. It is assumed that the process would not be used at all unless the leader had some assurance that the members of the group had such confidence in him.

The fact that it is sometimes impossible for the reasons underlying dismissal of personnel to be aired without harm to the reputations of the dismissed teachers is a final complication which should not be overlooked. All of the facts, especially if they involve improper or unprofessional conduct, cannot invariably be shared with an entire staff.

Staff Personnel Records. An inevitable question, when one considers teacher personnel, is what kinds of records should be kept for the individual. Accepting various routine statistics, certificate held, or salary status as customary and non-controversial, what records of an evaluative nature should be maintained by the school system?

Some type of appraisal probably is necessary for the teacher's protection, to provide data if he seeks another position, or if he is to be considered for promotion. Some principles governing the use of the teacher's personal data sheets are:

- (1) They should be kept in confidence.
- (2) The teacher should be permitted to see them on request.
- (3) They should be factual rather than based on hearsay.
- (4) They should be kept up in a systematic manner.
- (5) If leadership of the group changes, their contents should not be used in any unethical manner by a new administrator.
- (6) The procedure for keeping records should be similar for all personnel.

Confidential appraisals require a high degree of mutual confidence and trust between the leader and his group. Only a leader who can be trusted to use intimate and personal data wisely should attempt to compile it.

WORKING WITH NON-CERTIFICATED PERSONNEL

The “School Family.” During the elementary-junior high period children come in contact with a number of people associated with the schools. Each of these individuals is in some degree a part of the child's environment and contributes to his education—some much more directly and influentially than others, to be sure. While children's ideals and general objectives in life are largely shaped by their human environment, not all of these contacts within the school are limited to or are controlled by teachers. Good leadership will recognize this fact and endeavor to develop a “school family” atmosphere that is beneficial for children.

In the average school building children may develop relationships with such persons as the custodian and his assistants, cafeteria workers, bus drivers, traffic officers employed by the school, secretaries, clerks, and so forth. These are “non-teaching” personnel as distinct from special teachers, classroom teachers, and advisory consultants. Often these people are ignored or slighted when school policy is being formed. While certificated personnel should be more influential when it comes to planning the educational program, there is no reason why non-certificated personnel should be excluded from planning ways of improving the educational environment. Sometimes the school custodian exerts more influence on children in out-of-classroom contacts than the teacher does within the classroom—and he may have excellent ideas for the betterment of certain features and qualities of the campus. At the very least, he can help to devise and build equipment such as stage materials the more intelligently for having been “in on” the planning.

If the custodian, bus driver, or cafeteria worker are to be considered as a low order of “hired help,” employed for the purpose of getting maximum service for the least cost, one should not be surprised if they sometimes seem to act on a self-interest basis in return, unfeelingly and without regard for the

interests of the children whom they are expected to serve. If, however, they share in those plans for the children which directly involve them, at least two improvements can be expected in their services: (1) they will act more intelligently as a result of a better understanding of their place in the total scheme, and (2) they will develop a sense of pride and feeling of worthwhileness in their work. Both of these improvements justify deliberate steps to make the non-teaching employee feel that he is a part of the "school family."

How these various people may be included in the planning for children depends upon several factors. Administrators can ask themselves:

- (1) In what ways, and at what points, do non-certificated personnel come into contact with children?
- (2) What kind of improvements in these contacts are desirable?
- (3) In what ways may non-certificated personnel make new contacts?
- (4) How much time taken from their regular duties can be justified for these new activities?
- (5) What rules and regulations need to be established in order to avoid confusion of authority?

Teachers can be invited to add to this list of questions and undoubtedly will be of help in deriving satisfactory answers to them. Whatever the conclusions, it seems reasonable to propose that, at those points of contact where improvement is desirable, the non-certificated personnel also should be invited to join with the faculty in coöperatively determining the best policies.

One of the basic principles of good school organization, introduced early in this book, is that all affected by a decision should have some share in determining what it shall be. Personnel not engaged in teaching are often affected by decisions of the school staff. Where this occurs they should be a part of the planning group. This does not mean that the custodian or bus driver should be expected to attend every staff meeting and take part in all decisions. This would be expecting too much in professional competence and impose too great an obligation

on their after-school time. Nevertheless, it should remain in the leader's mind that the non-teaching worker will identify himself more intimately with the total objectives of the school when he has been invited to contribute to their selection rather than merely asked to make them *his* objectives.

The School Custodian. The custodian is understandably sensitive to what he may consider the misuse of the building by children and teachers. He is often proud of the plant and is anxious to keep it looking as neat and orderly as possible. Likewise, he wants to get his cleaning and repairs done with a minimum of interference and a maximum of dispatch. Experienced teachers and principals recognize that there are occasions when the objectives of the custodian come into direct conflict with the program and activities of the school. It is not necessary to document the thesis that too often the custodian and school staff are each partly to blame for frictions which evolve.

Many of these conflicts may be avoided by the expedient of inviting the custodian to attend certain staff meetings when matters pertaining to the physical use of the plant are under consideration. It is necessary for every employee group composed of teachers and custodians to find satisfactory answers to questions such as:

- (1) In what condition should teachers leave their rooms at the close of school?
- (2) What kinds of floor projects shall the children engage in, and what conditions should determine their development?
- (3) What steps need to be taken to assure reasonable conduct in the toilets, and what can be done to control misuse or vandalism?
- (4) How shall the room temperatures be controlled, and what information is needed about the heating system in order to settle this question?
- (5) How shall traffic of children coming and going from the building be regulated so that due regard is given to the need for preserving the physical beauty of the campus?
- (6) What classroom or playground services may be expected of

the custodian without interfering with or adding to a reasonable load of work?

This list could easily be extended. The above points serve to illustrate that there are innumerable instances when the custodian is directly influenced by the behavior of teachers and by their decisions. His presence in the meeting where conclusions and agreements are reached is necessary to successful, harmonious operation of the school. It will also be seen that his active contribution and participation in reaching these decisions will materially improve future actions on the part of all.

Above and beyond the immediate and practical consequences of closer teacher-custodian understanding is the effect that respect and recognition for his status will have upon the quality and number of his contributions to the school program. Instead of a master-to-servant relation there will gradually emerge a colleague relationship, evocative of mutual respect, that generally raises the level of custodial service. Elimination of conflicting purposes and interests of certificated and non-certificated personnel can materially improve the total learning environment for children.

Cafeteria and Bus Service Personnel. What has been said above with respect to the custodian applies with equal force to all non-certificated personnel. Wherever human beings are involved, basic principles of human relationships apply. A major concern at this point is that proper respect be shown for the contributions of all people to the total environment of the school.

Cafeteria workers can be extremely helpful, or a real hindrance, to the total program. Teachers should be interested in improving children's awareness of and skill in balancing their diet. A functional treatment of nutrition is an important aspect of work at every grade level. The cafeteria worker may or may not have competence to advise teachers and children on such matters, but he can be encouraged to learn along with the school about ways to improve children's selection of food as

they pass down the cafeteria line. Also, in a number of schools it is the practice to permit children to aid in the preparation of food and in clean-up of the cafeteria after the lunch hour. Proper supervision and guidance of their activities is dependent somewhat on the sympathetic interest and skill of the non-certificated personnel involved. It is desirable to have these people increase their competence in this direction. This improvement can be facilitated by participation in making decisions which control acceptable behavior in the cafeteria or lunch room.

With the tremendous increase in school bus transportation, stimulated by the consolidation of school districts, the driver is an element in the lives of more and more of America's children.¹⁹ The level of social behavior achieved in school can be either strengthened or harmed by the quality of supervision provided on school buses. The driver, although he may be unskilled in professional techniques, will often contribute to the improvement of the educational values which can be derived from a suitable pupil transportation system. As in the case of all other non-instructional staff people, the bus driver should be invited to sit with the faculty in working for better answers to any defects in the total school environment which might conceivably be affected by the driver's activities.

SUMMARY

This chapter concerned itself with three broad areas in which personnel policies apply: to children, to the professional staff, and to the non-certificated but equally important members of the school family. In each case, the effort was made to show how good practices stem from improved human relationships which are motivated by democratic values.

Early in the chapter the point was made that the leader's role in refining personnel practices was shaped by human per-

¹⁹ Cf. D. P. Culp (chmn.), *Pupil Transportation*. 1953 Yearbook of the Department of Rural Education, NEA (Washington, D. C., The Department, 1953). Pages 1-28 of this volume give a good picture of the development and status of pupil transportation in the U.S.

sonality, by legal restrictions, and by the values of western civilization which suggest the nature of good interpersonal relationships. Pupil personnel policies subsequently were discussed with student records and classroom guidance practices serving to illustrate the point of view that educational leadership should focus on improving the school environment rather than mechanical efficiency in evolving suitable practices.

A variety of practical matters were considered in the treatment devoted to teacher personnel policies. Included were criteria for gauging the nature of the principal's or superintendent's contributions to teacher growth, orientation of the new teacher, suggestions for improving staff meetings, employment-dismissal practices, and so forth. In the brief attention given to the leader's work with non-teaching personnel such as custodians, the importance of helping this group to become identified more closely with the educational program was repeatedly stressed and illustrated.

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CHAPTER FIFTEEN

GOOD SCHOOL HOUSING AND GOOD SCHOOLKEEPING



SOME school administrators are keenly interested in curriculum development, in working with teachers to translate interesting ideas and educational theory into better learning experiences. They enjoy *people* and relish the portion of their work which touches public relations, supervisory activities, faculty meetings. Other administrators pride themselves on their skill in the improvement and management of *things*; their interests are closely related to matériel as distinct from personnel.

Thus far this volume has focused on the educational leader's relationships with the human element in his work. This was as it should be, since good people make good schools.

The importance of people in education was underscored by James A. Garfield when he made "Mark Hopkins' name the eternal symbol for teaching at its best."¹ According to the former President, the ideal school was "Mark Hopkins sitting on one end of a log and a student on the other." Yet, *even a great teacher needs a new log to sit on once in a while*. That is, the importance of a good physical environment for learning

¹ Mildred S. Fenner and Eleanor C. Fishburn, *Pioneer American Educators* (Washington, D. C., The National Education Association, 1944), p. 65.

should not be slighted by placing emphasis exclusively on personnel. The effective educational leader seeks to strike a proper balance between work with the staff in vitalizing the human environment and work in improving the physical setting of the school.

The reader's attention is now directed toward the creative management of things: to good school housing and good school housekeeping and to intelligent procedures in school business management.

DEVISING A BETTER PHYSICAL ENVIRONMENT FOR CHILDREN AND YOUTH

The enormous increase in the number of children flooding into the schools since the mid-1940's has been well publicized. The upsurge has been so dramatic and prolonged in some areas as almost to benumb school workers. Teachers and administrators have been so overwhelmed with the task of finding floor space for children that statistics have become blurred and bereft of meaning. The reality of hordes of boys and girls has left little time to mull over graphs and columns of figures.

When an accurate count is made it is likely that the increase in elementary school enrollment for the five-year period 1950-1955 will be twice as great as in any preceding ten-year period.² Expressed in terms of school housing needs, the impact of this growth is even more impressive. Just for the five-year period in question (1950-1955), 200,000 classrooms must be built at the elementary level alone³ in order to maintain the *status quo* with respect to school housing available per pupil in 1950.

As shown in Figure 23, well over 30 million children will be enrolled in public schools by 1960.⁴ Data made available by the U. S. Census Bureau since 1952, when this graph was

² School Housing Section, Office of Education, *First Progress Report of the School Facilities Survey* (Washington, D. C., The Office of Education, 1952), p. 20.

³Loc. cit.

⁴ The exact Office of Education estimate for 1960: 31,980,000 children, or 127 boys and girls for every 100 in public schools in 1950.

prepared, suggest that the estimated peak enrollments of 32,151,000 in 1958 may not taper off as shown. Rather, birth rates in 1953 imply that no peak is in sight as yet. What do such dynamic enrollment trends suggest with respect to creative educational leadership?

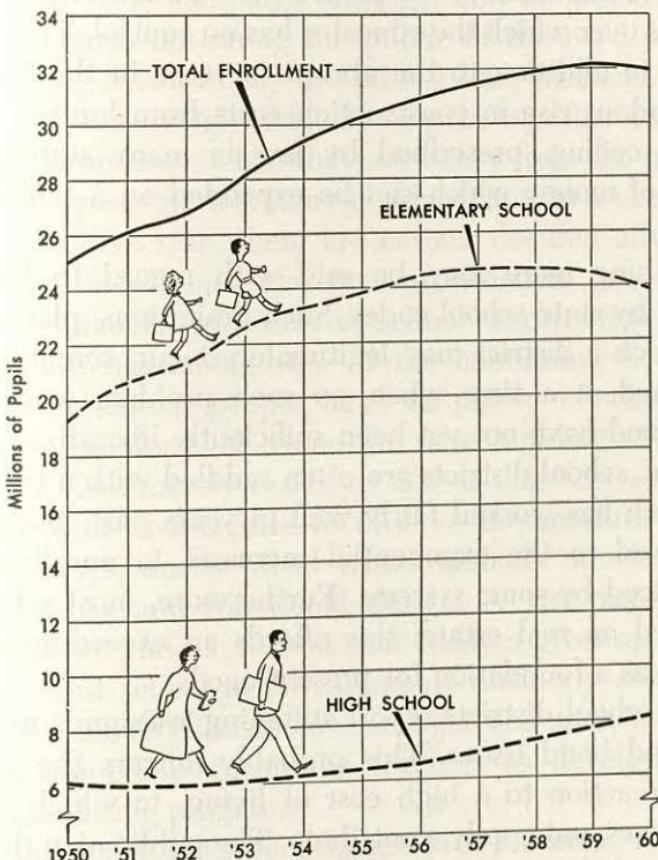


FIG. 23. Enrollments in American elementary and high schools, 1950-1960.⁵

Problems and Opportunities. On the negative side, insofar as school housing is concerned, there is the sheer physical labor for administrator and faculty involved in planning for plant expansion. If this planning is to be consistent with modern conceptions of good school construction, there must be an integration of the thinking and action of school architects and faculty.

⁵ School Housing Section, Office of Education, *op. cit.*, p. 21.

This is a time-consuming process which one is tempted to short-cut. Yet time must be taken. After a school is constructed it exerts a pervading influence on the instructional program during the life of the building.

The problems of modern school construction are further affected (sometimes to the point of frustration) by a complex of factors over which the educator has no control. These factors include, in addition to the abrupt increase in the birth rate, a tremendous rise in construction costs from lumber to labor and the ceiling, prescribed by law in many states, on the amount of money which can be expended on a building program.

Something more may be said with regard to limitations imposed by state school codes. Such limitations, placed on the debt which a district may legitimately incur, sometimes were established at a time when no such problem existed as at present and have not yet been sufficiently liberalized. In consequence, school districts are often saddled with a body of tax law which has worked fairly well in years past, but which is not geared to the exponential increases in enrollment now experienced by some systems. Furthermore, most school taxes are based on real estate; this affords an exceedingly narrow tax base as a foundation for present needs.

Some school districts report stiffening resistance to building levies and bond issues. This probably mirrors the taxpayers' uneasy reaction to a high cost of living, to which increased school taxes, unhappily, contribute. The public may thoroughly understand the need for additional school facilities, and may be entirely sympathetic with the plight of children in crowded schools, but sometimes decisions are made contrary to the best interests of public education in a panicky reaction blindly aimed at anything that threatens a further incursion on the family budget.

All of these factors contribute to a genuinely serious difficulty hampering the schools as a whole and the educational leader in particular. *This is the amount of time and energy consumed by material considerations and, hence, unavailable*

for curriculum study and similar improvement to the educational program. It is difficult for administrators to find time to plan educational matters carefully with their staffs when, sometimes for months, much of their time is taken up with meetings with architects to discuss blueprints, with boards of education to plan bond issue campaign strategy, and in preparing persuasive brochures informing the public of the need for additional building facilities. By the same token, teachers in some areas find it increasingly difficult to plan together for better learning environments when they are weary from the pressures imposed by squeezing too many children into their classrooms.

On the positive side, there are certain decided advantages and opportunities which the present situation presents. Although the financial problems of school construction are immense, it is a heartening sign of the continuing deep faith which the American people have in public education that approval in the form of votes for new buildings has been widespread. One merely needs to take a short drive through city, suburb, or countryside to observe the mushrooming of school buildings, nearly all of which embody advanced concepts of beauty and functional design. A visit inside these schools confirms the impression that today a growing body of children attend school in environments distinctly superior to those of the 1930's. Classrooms are light and airy, and functionally equipped to encourage teachers to develop educationally stimulating programs.

The rapid increase in school construction has made it possible for creative minds to make great inroads in the gloomy, heavy atmosphere which characterized school housing erected during a previous period of population growth: 1920-1930. Today's schools are being designed so that they are suited architecturally to their locality and adapted to the terrain, regional traditions, and educational aspirations. Often this is done at a cost relatively lower than that of the edifice that was built for children a generation ago.

The present crisis precipitated by crowding of school buildings has also mothered, of necessity, increased ingenuity in

finding ways to spend the tax dollar economically while still contriving to serve children. Instead of erecting expensive façades, so dear to the heart of certain architects, there has developed a trend toward saving money on mere outward show and increasing inner utility. Plastering of walls has given way to the cinder block or painted fire-brick interior; the extravagant brickwork or elaborate stone facing has been replaced by plain but pleasingly clean exteriors. Much of the beauty of modern buildings is to be found in their architectural design rather than in the lavishness of the building materials used. All of this may be recorded as clear gain which has been influenced, if not precipitated, by the need to make tax money stretch as far as it will go.

One of the greater boons to be credited to the present building situation is that of the rise of the *educational architect*. The increase in the number of schools to be designed has provided opportunity for many firms to become highly expert. Of equal significance is the present insistence on the part of educators that the program to be conducted in a building shall have a determinative influence on design. As will be shown later, the modern school building is tailored to fit the emerging program, a common-sense innovation which has been long over-due.

Planning the Setting for Effective Learning. The process by which a new building is planned will make a great deal of difference in the end-product. If a school district is to avoid arbitrarily planned, educationally restrictive classrooms, devoid of consideration of the programs which they are to house, educational leadership will need to devote attention to the methods which characterize the process of planning. A recent publication of the U. S. Office of Education recommends that the following steps be associated with the pre-planning stage:

Step 1—Recognition of the need

Step 2—Faculty discussions and formulation of policies

Step 3—Policy adoption by the school board

Step 4—Committee selection with broad community representation

Step 5—Community-faculty discussions and recommendations

Step 6—Review and revision of committee recommendations by superintendent, architect, and consultants.⁶

It is important that the faculty work closely with and, if need be, instruct the architect concerning the purposes to which the school plant will be put. These purposes are *educational* and should properly be in the province of the educational staff. Through coöperative planning by the staff, and with the sustaining encouragement of educational leadership, the following five considerations should receive full attention before the signal is given the professional architect to design the facilities:⁷

(1) *The relation of the individual classroom to the plant as a whole.* The classroom is the heart of the educational enterprise. All important activities originate here and are supported but not supplanted by other facilities or activities. The auditorium, gymnasium, cafeteria, or other special rooms are to be conceived as adjuncts to the classroom and should be planned with this fact in mind. Teachers are best able to describe and determine fundamental relationships between classroom and other building facilities and should hold steadfastly to the concept that the school should be built around the classroom.

(2) *The educational values accepted by the school staff and community.* As a staff works toward the clarification of those educational values upon which it will attempt to build the educational program, it will need to develop concepts of the classroom and the program that harmonize with and facilitate its purposes. If the teachers rate high on their educational list the inclusion in the daily program of varied activities, such as crafts or group projects, they will need a classroom designed not only to permit but to encourage these activities. The role of educational philosophy in determining the architecture is an important one and should not be ignored despite the press of time.

(3) *The nature of the facilities needed to implement the*

⁶ U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, The Office of Education, *Designing Elementary Classrooms* (Washington, D. C., The Office of Education, 1953), pp. 2-3.

⁷ Adapted from *ibid.*, p. 6ff.

desired program. Below are listed certain activities which may be carried on in the classroom and the kind of facilities needed to enable the group to carry them out:

<i>Activity</i>	<i>Physical facilities suggested</i>
a. Planning and discussion needed for growth in democratic skills and creative thinking.	a. Movable furniture, space for discussion groups.
b. Creative expression through arts and crafts, aesthetic experiences, art appreciation.	b. Equipment and supplies as well as space for storing them: movable tables, art materials, display areas, craft materials, cabinets, tool boxes, sinks, exhibit cases.
c. Use of teaching aids to enrich learning.	c. Audio-visual equipment and storage facilities, electrical outlets, projection screen, draperies for darkening room, bulletin boards, graphs, charts.
d. Recreation and play activities.	d. Toys and similar indoor equipment suited to age levels, record players, simple rhythmic instruments, play-houses, storage facilities inside and outside.
e. Creative dramatics.	e. Costumes, tape recorders, simple makeup, screens, portable stage, properties, storage room.
f. Music experiences.	f. Instruments, records and player, materials for making own instruments, work and storage space for instruments.
g. Gardening and conservation experiences.	g. Garden tools, fertilizers, window boxes, garden plots.

- h. Protection of health; practice of health habits.
- h. Adequate sanitary facilities (toilets, wash-bowls), first aid supplies, rest facilities.
- i. Development of skills.
- i. Comfortable desks, reading corner, study tables.

(4) *Recognition of the nature of children and young adolescents.* The school's physical environment should take into consideration the age and maturation level of the children it houses. It is obvious how this applies to the size of furniture, the height of work counters from the floor, and so on, but it is less obvious with regard to the particular kind of equipment suited to different age groups. It has been standard procedure in the past to provide *all* age groups with either single desks with attached chairs, or larger tables with unattached chairs. A study of children in several age groupings might reveal that the nature of the furniture selected should differ for different age groups. For instance, the social cohesion of smaller children might suggest larger tables for group activities, whereas the more independent motivations of older children might indicate the greater advantage of single work desks. Each staff will need to work out its own answers to this question; the outcome probably will be a decision that variety is preferable to uniformity.

(5) *Recognition of the needs of children in the context of the particular social and physical environments from which they come.* Not only should schoolhouse construction be flexible to fit the educational needs of children; it should vary with the kind of community in which they live. The young growing up in the midst of poverty, for instance, might well have particularly good school facilities for improving nutrition, general health, and cleanliness. Lunch rooms, as another example, should vary with the size of the geographical area the school serves. If most children cannot go home during the lunch hour a good cafeteria or hot lunch counter is needed. **Some Desirable Attributes of the Individual Classroom.** Depending to a great extent upon the educational program planned

in the classroom, certain physical facilities become important or non-essential. It is probably unwise to provide elaborate resources which are unused because they are unneeded. The provision of a glass corridor display case for each group can be a waste of money if the faculty fails to see in the use of such cases educational values worth the effort of planning and frequent changing of their contents. With this thought in mind, and assuming that the teachers have planned co-operatively with the administration for the optimum use of space, the following are suggested as desirable contents for or attributes of a generously equipped classroom in which a full and varied educational program is to be carried on:⁸

- (1) Classroom area—a minimum floor area of 900 square feet for 25-30 pupils.
- (2) Sound control—acoustically treated tile ceiling and sound-proofed walls.
- (3) Chalkboard and tackboard—approximately 20 linear feet of each (portable or sliding boards may be used to increase the amount of space).
- (4) Shades for darkening room for the use of audio-visual materials, as well as draperies or venetian blinds.
- (5) Projection screen and maps on rolls.
- (6) Display case—preferably one which may be seen from both classroom and corridor.
- (7) Storage space—cubicles for individual children; shelves for books; file cabinets, both standard size and to serve as a vertical file.
- (8) Waterproof clay bins for art work.
- (9) Window ledge wide enough to display plants, science experiments, etc.
- (10) Wardrobes, or adjacent corridor lockers, for children and teacher, including space for children's gym gear.
- (11) Floor covering—composition tile to reduce noise.
- (12) Adequate and flexible lighting with photoelectric switch and manual controls.
- (13) Color—pastels, with ceiling a light-reflecting shade of ivory.

⁸ Adapted and expanded from *Designing Elementary Classrooms*, *ibid.*, pp. 30-35.

- (14) Toilet facilities—preferably attached to the classroom.
- (15) Furniture—a variety of single desks, round and square tables, of varying heights.
- (16) Workspace in corner or end of room, with sink, work shelves, and room drinking fountains.
- (17) Easels and special art corner.
- (18) Two exits from the classroom—one leading to a corridor, one directly outdoors.
- (19) A sufficient number of electrical outlets, properly spaced.
- (20) Easy access, especially for younger children, to such building resources as the auditorium or gymnasium.

It may appear from the foregoing that the specifications listed here are entirely too exact for teachers to determine, but at some point in the classroom planning discussions in which teachers will engage it is important that definite conclusions be reached. If the specific ideas proposed by the teachers are much less prolific than the above list, it probably indicates that that is as far as their ingenuity was able to take them at the time and that further study (perhaps including visits to new buildings in the vicinity and discussions with the architect) is in order. Given the information with which to make decisions, teachers can make them very well.

If given time to deliberate, teachers may be depended upon to have distinct, practical, and appropriate ideas about the kind of classroom in which they would like to teach. Their ideas usually may be generalized as follows:

- (1) A light, clean, and easy-to-care-for room.
- (2) A room that lends itself to a program for children of a given age range.
- (3) A room that will lend itself to a variety of purposes and uses.
- (4) An environment which is attractive for both children and teacher, with plenty of color tastefully used.
- (5) Economy of space to save extra steps.

Teachers, like anyone else, enjoy a cheerful, healthful, and efficient environment. Given the opportunity to think of modifications in classroom design, they have shown that they may be depended upon to make many worthwhile suggestions.

CREATIVE APPROACHES TO THE PLANNING OF MODERN SCHOOL HOUSING

Creative planning with respect to the improvement of school housing depends upon group thinking. Editorial comment in an architectural journal noted, "Fresh ideas and informed criticism—these are the two essentials without which there can be no sound progress in school design."⁹ Dynamic thinking and a long-range view are not limited to the architect alone nor to the administrator. They are the product of group interaction in which the entire staff, children, parents, and other interested citizens engage. The people who are going to use—to live in—school buildings are likely to have important ideas as to the kind of surroundings they seek. Able architects help dreams of better schools to come true. Their know-how in terms of practical construction is indispensable, but their personal opinions and visions of imaginatively conceived, sound buildings must have added professional perspective which faculty and parents—yes, and children—can provide.

In the words of a distinguished midwestern architect, "A good elementary or junior high school should not be notable merely for brightness ratios or structure, but as a charming place for the exciting business of learning. Our firm is most proud when we can say that we don't know where our ideas began and where the local staff's ended. We want to build on one another."¹⁰

Staff Participation in Schoolhouse Planning. The various personal and psychological bases which encourage broad participation of the staff in curriculum planning are fully applicable with respect to planning improvements in school housing.¹¹ If

⁹ Editorial, "Schools: Fresh Ideas and Long-Range Criticisms," *Architectural Forum*, October, 1952, p. 101.

¹⁰ Statement made to the writers, November, 1953.

¹¹ For a pertinent piece of research regarding such participation, cf. Dwight Arnold, "Morale as Influenced by Participation in Group Planning and Action," *Educational Research Bulletin* (The Ohio State University), 32:202-211, November 11, 1953.

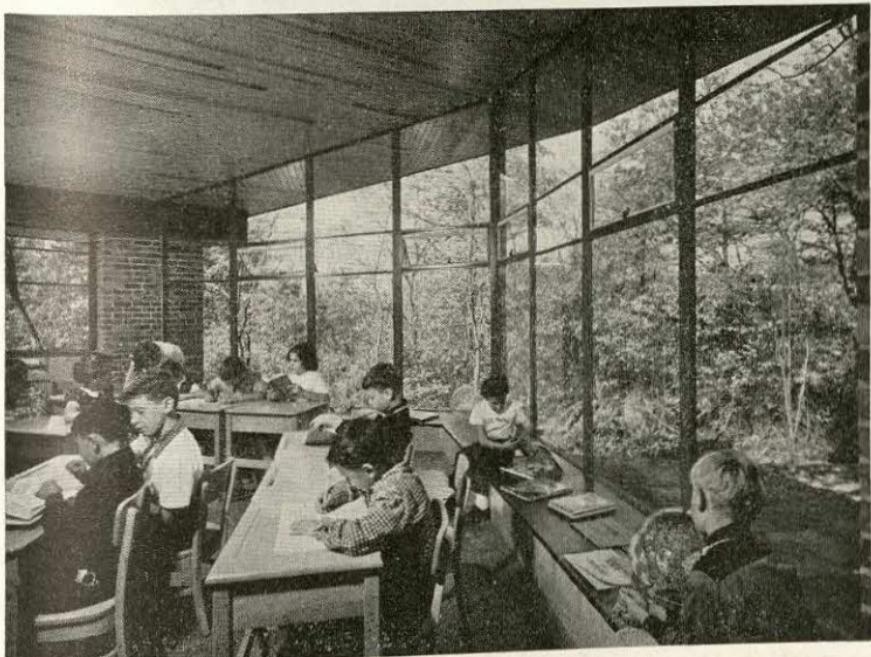


FIG. 24. A good school is a place children will love as a setting for the exciting business of learning. (Unless otherwise noted, photographs in this chapter were supplied through the courtesy of Perkins & Will, Architects, Chicago.)

school districts are to have the most functional, economical housing, it is mandatory for administrative leadership to use the human resources of school and community to achieve these ends.

Staff participation is indispensable because neither the administrator nor the architect can anticipate all of the desirable "touches" which teachers can suggest for classrooms and special areas if given the opportunity. Through participation in such planning the teacher is more than likely to develop a feeling of "belonging," a keen personal interest in the structure and its subsequent care.¹²

Typical suggestions from teachers include those listed previously on p. 464, and also such ideas as the following:

- Wall surfaces (e.g., sections of wood panelling) which can be used as tackboard as needed
- A wall niche in the playroom into which the piano can be recessed to prevent children from bumping into it at game time
- Enlarged foyers which can be used for informal parent gatherings and similar social activities
- The home-like touches of recessed shelving for plants, books, etc.
- Special workbench-cabinets to house clay crocks, large sheets of paper, and similar materials
- Facilities, such as pullman kitchens, for cooking or serving light refreshments at parent meetings.

Teachers can and will make an all-but-infinite number of suggestions when given the opportunity. Administrators and architects may adopt some, but are never expected to adopt *all*, of the plans that stem from the application of group thinking and the freeing of creative intelligence in school planning. **Community Participation in Schoolhouse Planning.** Community participation is of equivalent importance for several reasons. Parents and other residents have good ideas to share too. Also, community participation in planning helps to generate

¹² Cf. Francis S. Chase, "Factors in Satisfaction in Teaching," *Phi Delta Kappan*, 33:127-132, November, 1951.



FIG. 25. Coöperative group planning eventuates in cumulative improvement in school housing as reflected in this pleasant room.

support for the increased tax levies which follow the bond issues requisite for new schools and for the remodeling of or additions to older structures. It is scarcely conceivable that citizens who have been active in decision-making will fail to support building programs which may, at least in part, be identified as the product of their thinking.

The emphasis on teacher and community participation in no way is intended to belittle the role of the administrative leader which is even more significant in the participation approach than in the "leader-centered" approach. However, in a coöperative attack on school housing, the administrator's function is altered in subtle ways. He, personally, is not expected to produce all the answers to problems, but becomes responsible for helping to bring the sum of school-community planning to the highest possible level of perfection. Also, when group thinking is involved in conceiving a building the administrator is less

likely to be criticized for the mistakes and omissions which inevitably occur.

ADMINISTRATIVE FUNCTIONS IN THE BUILDING PROGRAM

Four basic steps characterize the construction of most schools.¹³ These include (1) programming, (2) basic planning, (3) final preparation, and (4) supervision of construction.

Programming. As a rule, programming involves the initial duty of studying local needs in relation to birthrate trends, financial resources, and educational plans and aspirations. It is usually well for the leader to work with the staff, parents, and board of education at this point in evolving *long-range* plans for future school housing. In rapidly expanding districts, programming is a continuous process, constantly modified as demanded by changing population trends. When possible, programming should anticipate ground breaking for a building or for an addition to the plan by about three years.

Here the administrator first informs himself as to the trends of community growth (*where* it is occurring, how rapidly, and so on) in order to estimate needed plant expansion. Frequently studies conducted by one or more members of the local staff and/or university field service and survey divisions are a valuable resource. Next, the facts gathered are shared with and studied by the staff as a whole, and with representatives of the community. If a school architect is engaged on a retainer-consultant basis he is alerted and his preliminary counsel sought at this point.

In the programming stage it is vital to apply professional judgment to emerging curriculum trends in order to envision a plant which anticipates the educational program. It is a needless error to drift planlessly through a period of school-

¹³ It should be evident to the reader that the comments in this chapter apply to the average and smaller-sized school districts in which the overwhelming majority of administrators are employed. Great metropolitan centers must, of necessity, rely on representative rather than mass participation, and the administrator obviously has to delegate many of the responsibilities reviewed here.

house construction only to learn subsequently that the limitations imposed by a poorly conceived plant are dictating the nature of the educational program.

Some of the dimensions of programming as a major responsibility of educational leadership are indicated in U. S. Office of Education data. In the United States as a whole 37,129 new classrooms were needed *between March 1951 and September 1952 alone* to meet enrollment increases.¹⁴ These estimated increases to meet pressing needs were exclusive of the 111,644 extant classrooms rated as obsolete.¹⁵ As a dismal footnote, the data reflect the demand for programming and construction in the initial stages of the population increase presently taxing the nation's schoolhouses.

Basic Planning. Leadership arrives at the point at which children, teachers, community members, board of education, and administrator (each having the long-term housing picture well in mind) seek to decide what specific features shall be embodied in the proposed housing. Ideas are shared and processed, preliminary, informal sketches are made by the architect, and plans are redrawn as urged by financial limitations and suggestions from participants. "Basic planning" is a phase almost invariably marked by compromise (seemingly, no district can afford or agree upon *all* of the features its residents would like to have in the school) and clarification of thinking. The administrator is, indeed, on his mettle at this point as a human relations specialist in reconciling aspirations with reality and in yielding on the inconsequential while seeking to preserve basic educational values as they bear on construction. The learning experience for the leader is rich in terms of his personal growth through clarification of his educational theories and understanding of the limitations reality places on theory.

¹⁴ School Housing Section, Office of Education, *Second Progress Report: School Facilities Survey* (Washington, D. C., Office of Education, 1952), p. 35.

¹⁵ Just how obsolete facilities are, according to the *First Progress Report* (cited earlier in the chapter), is implied by the fact that many are not even fire-proof. Of one-story buildings in 17 states sampled by the Office of Education, 80 per cent were combustible while 34 per cent and 26 per cent of the two- and three-story schools, respectively, were combustible. Cf. p. 43.

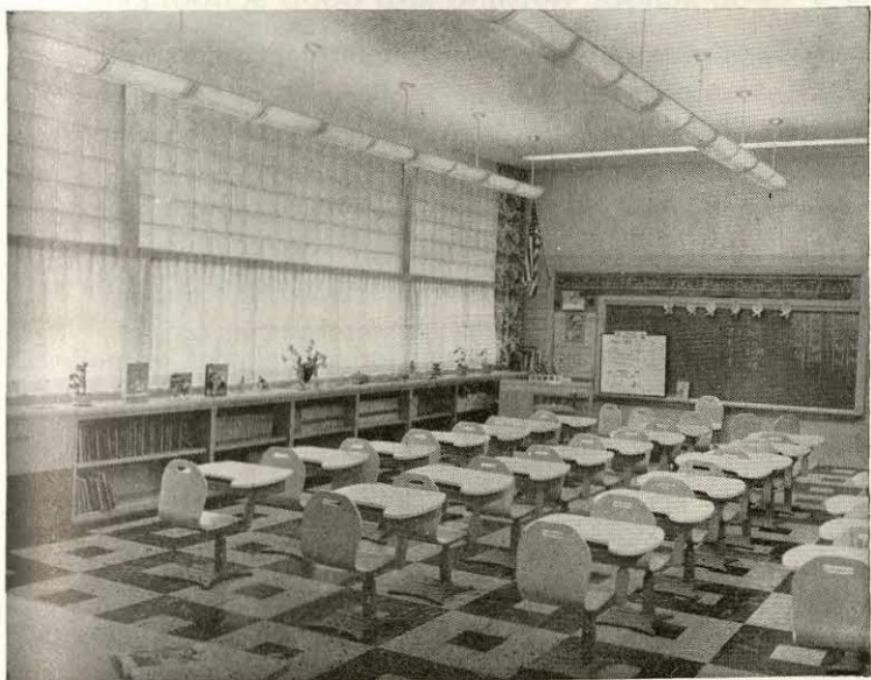
Final Preparation. Working drawings of floor plans receive final modification and sanction from board, school staff, and community, a sanction it is hoped will be lent substance by the bond issue vote, an almost universal concomitant of the final planning stage.

Supervision of Construction. While it is the official responsibility of the architect, under usual circumstances, to supervise construction, certain demands continue to be placed on the administrator. Plans on paper simply do not always work out as anticipated. Materials may prove unavailable; "obvious" improvements overlooked in the blueprint stage may suggest themselves. Until the keys symbolically are turned over to the board of education at the dedication ceremony, there is a continuing need for applying creative intelligence to a hundred crises great and small.

Throughout the various steps in planning and constructing attractive and useful elementary and junior high school buildings, the administrator and those participating in the coöperative group process of leadership face a problem which is too frequently minimized in educational writings. This is the matter of economy. Probably no staff was ever in a position to spend all it wanted in a school plant. Usually the "basic planning" period is an especially trying one in that many decisions have to be made with respect to cost-cutting. The skill of leadership is taxed by the recurrent need for reducing expenses without severely jeopardizing educational values. Among economies which do not cut the heart out of a good plant are the following 15 which are adapted from suggestions made by the American Association of School Administrators in coöperation with over 50 architects, administrators, and school building specialists:¹⁶

- (1) *Reduce the number of cubic feet.* Eight rather than 12 foot ceilings are adequate with modern lighting and ventilating systems.

¹⁶ William W. Caudill, *Cutting Costs in Schoolhouse Construction* (Washington, D. C., The American Association of School Administrators, 1952), pp. 6-16.



Figs. 26, 27. Simplicity in construction can have twin virtues of beauty and economy.¹⁷

¹⁷ Photographs supplied through the courtesy of Dr. James Moon, Superintendent, The Western Springs, Illinois, Public Schools. The clean-cut buildings illustrated in this chapter were built at appreciably less than the average Chicago area square-foot costs in 1953-1954.

- (2) *Shorten outside walls.* Eliminate perimeters with needless corners.
- (3) *Simplify silhouettes.* Avoid elaborate bay windows and unusual roof lines.
- (4) *Use space imaginatively.* Plan for maximum use of rooms. Just as dining and living space are combined in modern homes, combine classroom and work areas within one set of walls.
- (5) *Do without gingerbread.* Gothic, Colonial, or modernistic "slipcovers" waste money and may be in questionable taste. Simplicity can have the virtues of beauty and economy.
- (6) *Use mass-produced structural materials.* Take advantage of the lower cost of doing one thing with the same material many times.
- (7) *Select materials which involve a limited number of crafts.* "If a tile setter, a carpenter, a brick mason, a plasterer, and a steel worker each have a hand in setting a simple door buck (and this does happen), they are certain to get in one another's way at the taxpayer's expense."¹⁸
- (8) *Coördinate the building materials chosen.* Use stock windows and frames, avoid made-to-order millwork.
- (9) *Plan for maximum versatility of material.* Specify ceiling and corridor materials that will not need paint or that have built-in color; consider elimination of dropped-finished ceilings by proper use of exposed-beam and roof-deck ceilings.
- (10) *Do not cheapen the quality of fabric.* Ten-year roofing or cheap hardware can be a waste of money if they promise to run up long-term maintenance-replacement costs. Look for durable material.
- (11) *Do not invest in overstrengthened or in overlapping construction.* Needlessly strong walls can be eliminated. And why put up expensive plastered walls, then cover them with chalkboard and tackboard?
- (12) *Use streamlined erection techniques.* Precast roof slabs and various prefabricated materials should be studied and used when possible.
- (13) *Try to let bids at the right time.* Work for building

¹⁸ William W. Caudill, *op. cit.*, p. 11.

schedules that tie in with local contractors' desire to keep men on the payrolls. Time the bid-letting to encourage keen competition.

- (14) *Build with subsequent additions in mind.* Site and structure should be selected and planned with consideration for future wings, internal changes, and in anticipation of future extensions of the educational program. Can certain rooms, for example, subsequently be used for kindergartens when financial conditions permit them to be added?
- (15) *Invest in first-rate professional help.* Since architectural fees are more or less standard (usually 6-10 per cent, depending on whether a building involves new construction or rebuilding), find a seasoned architect. Let him create a plan suited to local specifications, to local climate, labor market, and material costs.

The preceding suggestions are intended to show that there is a creative and imaginative role for the administrative leader, even in the face of limited funds. Good school management involves applying the same good sense and good judgment to material things one would apply to effective instructional leadership.

PREVENTIVE MAINTENANCE

Preventive school maintenance, like preventive medicine, needs to be judged not by what it *costs* but by what it *saves* in the long run. Administrative leaders should avoid investing all of their time and energy in obtaining new resources and work to keep up those already on hand.

Group Participation in Maintenance Practices. There is an important job for teachers in the maintenance process. They are the ones who use equipment and supplies, and, because they greatly outnumber administrators, they are likely to be the first to spot roof leaks, dripping faucets, burned out projector bulbs, or loose asphalt tile in the playroom.

The "group leadership" approach to maintenance involves helping the faculty to feel that the building is *theirs* to care for. The expansion of the teachers' awareness from concern for the educational program to concern for the physical facilities will not be a difficult one for a staff accustomed to group participation in *all* aspects of the program. Administrators will find that important savings and improvements are made when suggestions for preventive maintenance are welcomed and encouraged. Further than this, leaders should make it possible for the staff to set up machinery for facilitating needed repairs, such as a "work requisition" system for getting window shades mended, replacing broken panes in windows, and so on. The success the leader attains in motivating teachers to include the care of the building in their concerns will probably be in direct proportion to the attention he is able to give to their suggestions and requests. A teacher who needs to requisition five times for the repair of a piece of broken furniture in his classroom is not likely to feel that a well-run building is any concern of his. On the other hand, prompt attention to suggestions and requests will inspire teachers to take initiative in pointing out needed repairs.

It is obvious that an all-faculty concern for building maintenance has its drawbacks as well as its virtues. If the staff makes unreasonable or uncoordinated requests for services directly to the maintenance staff, it is possible that a few strained relationships will develop. Rather than risk creating ill-will by giving the maintenance corps "too many bosses," it is probably better if needed repairs are called to the attention of the building principal, who can then relay the information to the appropriate source for action.

Care must be taken that a concern for protection does not degenerate into *over*-protection. There is a point at which care becomes too meticulous. When this point is reached, teachers have become indoctrinated with the need for guarding the facilities to such a degree as to interfere with the educational program. Leadership needs to exercise considerable ingenuity

in keeping a harmonious balance between defensible economy and legitimate wear and tear on a well-used building.

The Work-Crew Cycle. Even in school districts of modest size it may be wise for leadership to consider a maintenance man or crew in addition to the custodial corps. There are many recurring jobs in the continual up-keep of the physical plant which, if planned carefully and on a definite schedule, can keep a separate crew busy the year around. Customarily, such tasks as refinishing desks, resurfacing floors, painting, or pointing of outside brick work are considered to be summer activities of the regular custodial staff. Frequently, because there are many of them, such jobs never are quite completed, and may be so hastily done as to need re-doing in a short while. The employment of a separate crew, even of one man, to spend full time on a continuous cycle of activities frequently can lead to real savings. Furthermore, certain repairs can ill-afford to wait until the summer recess because of the danger that they will deteriorate badly in the meantime. For example, warped floors, due to rain seepage along the sleepers, can become so severely misshapen that the only recourse is to lay an entirely new one. The old adage, "A stitch in time . . ." certainly applies here.

If a school system is not large enough, and does not have enough work to justify the employment of even one full-time person for this work, it may be possible for two or more districts in adjacent areas to coöperate in the mutual employment of the same person.

If the work crew is established, a certain amount of group planning will be helpful in determining the sequence and cycle of the work. Teachers who are alerted to the need for physical repairs may help to establish the "educational priority" to be given them; that is, the sequence of repairs which will be most helpful or least harmful to the work of the classroom teachers. They will not fail to make suggestions for the crew's employment. Tasks involved in making schools more livable are always on the list of desirable improvements of which teachers dream.

GOOD SCHOOLKEEPING IN THE CLASSROOM

Desirable policies with respect to matériel on a system-wide basis are but the lengthened shadow of practices in the individual classroom unit. In other words, matériel policies amount to no more than the sum of the efficacy with which the staff works to carry them out on an individual basis.

Simple Principles of Good Housekeeping. The example which teachers set for children will substantially determine the work habits and values of efficiency and orderliness which children will develop. The virtues associated with good classroom management affect not only the maintenance of the physical equipment but involve certain personal-educational values which may be important in the future lives of boys and girls.

Staffs which are concerned with both the economy and educational outcomes of good classroom housekeeping will profit from a general discussion leading to agreements concerning what constitutes a well-ordered learning situation. The following are suggested as some simple principles which may govern their decisions:

- (1) Disorder and disarray may legitimately be expected during certain kinds of work periods, but all good workmen clean up when the work is completed.
- (2) Neatness is a virtue when it contributes to the general attractiveness of the room, but should not hamper the educational process. Areas in which neatness may be emphasized without harming other objectives might be:
 - a. Well organized and planned bulletin board displays
 - b. Tastefully and functionally ordered display cabinets
 - c. Plant arrangements on window sills and tops of book-cases
 - d. Orderly arrangement of books and items of interest displayed on open shelves.
- (3) Work materials should have a proper place for their storage and should be found there when not in use.
- (4) Classrooms should be left in order at the close of school,

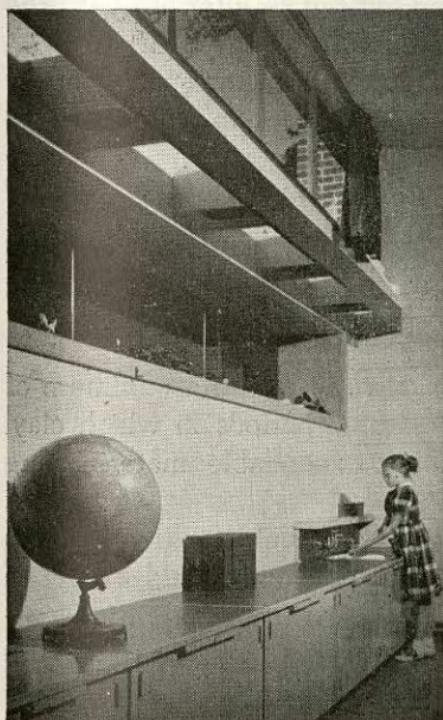


FIG. 28. Work materials should have a proper place for their storage.



FIG. 29. Livestock kept in the classroom should be treated with the same respect one would expect in the home or farm.

with a minimum of material left out to interfere with the cleaning chores of the custodial staff.

- (5) Unsightly materials, such as paint jars, pastepots, unused lumber, or scrap paper, should be kept in closed lockers or cupboards when not in use.
- (6) Teachers and children may be expected to exercise reasonable care in the treatment of salvageable materials. Many a paint brush or jar of paste has been lost to future use because it was not cleaned, capped, and readied for subsequent use.
- (7) Reasonable care should be taken to assure a minimum of spoilage, spillage, or waste during periods in which clay, paint, ink, crayon, and other expendable materials are used.
- (8) Live-stock kept in the classroom should be treated with the same respect and consideration one would expect in the home or on the farm. Bird-cages need periodic cleaning, as do rabbit hutches, hen coops, or terraria. Plants need to be watered; the water in aquariums needs to be changed.

It is important that the staff draw a distinction between neatness which lends attractiveness to the classroom environment, and fastidiousness which makes it impossible for activity work to be done comfortably lest the orderly arrangement of the room be disturbed. Teachers who have been encouraged to participate in decisions which affect their individual behavior in their own classrooms may be expected to establish workable regulations which avoid both oppressively immaculate rooms and those that look like the church basement at the end of a rummage sale.

SUMMARY

A school which provides a wholesome environment for learning is one in which the staff and administration have learned to achieve an educationally desirable balance between concern for the human and the material elements of which it is comprised. Some educational leaders, because of personal proclivity,

tend to divide ineptly the time and effort spent on instruction on the one hand and on the management of things on the other.

Chapter Fifteen attempted to show that the problem of school housing has become exceedingly important. Administrative leadership was urged to think of new construction in terms of the quality of school living to be sought in the years ahead during which a proposed new plant is likely to be in operation. Creative approaches to planning were emphasized and repeated mention was made of the need for staff and community members to share in the thinking and in the decisions prerequisite to the goal of a functional school which, by its physical qualities, encourages good learning.

The role of the administrator was described with respect to programming, basic planning, final preparation, and supervision of construction of school housing, and practical suggestions were made as to sound yet economical policies in construction. The chapter concluded with observations regarding maintenance of the plant in general and in the classroom in particular.

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CHAPTER SIXTEEN

SCHOOL BUSINESS MANAGEMENT, LAW, AND FINANCE IN A HUMAN CONTEXT



SCHOOL business affairs, law, and finance at first glance seem to be concerned with inanimate things: supply purchases, state school codes, or annual budgets. However, such matters cannot be adequately considered except as they relate to the people who are, in one way or another, affected by them. Thus, in a book concerned with leadership in education, it seems both reasonable and fitting to consider the material aspects of administrative responsibility in a setting which involves human relationships.

Chapter Sixteen is *not* an attempt to summarize and digest masses of factual information pertaining to the details of law or finance. Entire books have been devoted to each of these topics and it would be foolish to attempt to review these fields in a single chapter. The present purpose, then, is to examine what creative approaches educational leadership can make to selected problems in school management, law, and finance, in order that the administrative leader may serve with fidelity the interests of children, their parents, and their teachers.

LEADERSHIP CONFRONTS INTENSIFIED PROBLEMS IN THE MANAGEMENT OF SCHOOL AFFAIRS

As a normal outcome of dynamic growth, school business administration (including management, law, and finance) has become "big business." Over a quarter of a century ago Nicholas and Fred Engelhardt prepared an encyclopedic treatment of the field which ran to more than 1,000 fact-filled pages.¹ Other treatises by Reeder,² Smith,³ and Womrath⁴ followed in short order. At the present time the problems associated with business administration show signs of increasing both in number and in complexity.

The Growing Number and Complexity of Problems in School Business Administration. Unprecedented increases in pupil population,⁵ the migration of city dwellers to the suburbs (as shown dramatically by the data released periodically since the mid-1940's by the Census Bureau in Washington), inflation, and the narrow tax basis on which public schools must rely in many states, are among the major factors which create difficulties in current school business affairs. Funds must be found for new buildings at a time when the increased cost of living has boosted construction costs. Schools must compete for teachers at spiralling salary levels with consequent demands on available tax monies.

An extended amount of space could be devoted merely to cataloguing the many new purely business problems which confront superintendents of schools. In school systems of sufficient size to justify the expenditure, specially trained persons are often attached to the superintendent's office to advise con-

¹ N. L. Engelhardt and Fred Engelhardt, *Public School Business Administration* (New York, Columbia University Press, 1927).

² Ward G. Reeder, *The Business Administration of a School System* (New York, Ginn and Co., 1929).

³ H. P. Smith, *Business Administration of Public Schools* (New York, World Book Co., 1929).

⁴ G. F. Womrath, *Efficient Business Administration of Public Schools* (Milwaukee, Bruce Publishing Co., 1932).

⁵ Cf. Chapter Fifteen, pp. 456-457, *supra*.

cerning, and even to take over bodily, many of the chief administrative officer's responsibilities related to business management, budgeting, and employment and direction of custodians. In systems of small or moderate size, however, the responsibility for the total business operation of the school often rests solely on the superintendent and his clerical staff.

As illustrations of the increased responsibilities of the educational leader, four may be mentioned: (1) State laws requiring the transportation of children to school have created a whole new area of business responsibility involving the purchase of school buses, hiring of bus drivers, setting up of bus routes, and contracting for insurance coverage. (2) The complexity of school finance has demanded the establishment of elaborate cost accounting systems, sometimes involving the use of IBM computing machines. (3) With children being transported greater distances, there is increased necessity for establishing food services, a development entailing a cluster of problems: food purchase, its preparation, bookkeeping, and the matter of maintaining the program on a self-sustaining basis. (4) The increasing unionization of school workers, particularly custodians, manual labor, and cafeteria workers has added to the leader's preoccupations. School custodians were, at one time, expected to take care of the minor repairs needing attention in the busy school. Today, both the complexity of the plant and labor union policies often require the employment of persons in the building trades to do the specialized work. The construction of a new drinking fountain may entail the services of a plumber for piping, a mason for the concrete work, and a plasterer to repair damage to the walls. This distribution of labor materially increases the business responsibilities of the superintendent.

Complexity as a Burden to Leadership. It is pure euphemism to refer to the complex of problems in school business management today as anything other than a burden in many of the school districts employing 100 to 200 teachers. These systems are too small to employ assistant superintendents or business managers and as a result the superintendent himself does work

which is delegated to other people in larger districts. In communities with a population up to 50,000 and sometimes more, the superintendent may need to be a combination of curriculum director, chief supervisor, head of public relations, director of personnel, and business manager. His position has expanded from a relatively simple one of chief educational officer, responsible for the execution of board-of-education policies, to an involved one requiring the skills of the astute business manager as well as those of the able educational leader.

It seems understandable that pressing and specific business responsibilities will tend to intrude on the less immediate, albeit more important, educational concerns to the point where the latter either become subordinate activities or are delegated to another person on the staff. Unless considerable attention is given to this problem, there is the unfortunate possibility that the educational program will be neglected by over-worked and over-challenged superintendents who must give their full attention to the business of keeping the material aspects of the school in proper running order.⁶

Are There Creative Solutions to Management Problems? It would be frustrating, to put it mildly, if it were not possible to voice a "yes" as an answer here, even if it must, to some extent, be a qualified one. There are ways in which leadership can be spared the need to spend excessive amounts of time on business matters. Also, in many school systems the approach made to business administration can be a creative one, an approach which not only eases the routine load of the leader but improves the operation of the school in the process.

It seems wise at this point to examine the term "creative" as it applies to material matters such as business affairs. With respect to curricular and instructional leadership, the term was used in the sense of bringing new, imaginative ideas into being. The same definition may be applied to elementary-junior high school business administration. Thus, in seeking *creative* solu-

⁶ For an excellent analysis of the present situation as regards the superintendency, cf. American Association of School Administrators, *The American School Superintendency* (Washington, D. C., The Association, 1952), Chapters I and II.

tions to problems of business administration there are two considerations: (1) using imagination to improve current practices and conditions, and (2) devising new procedures.

In the remainder of the present chapter these two points are brought to bear on business management routines, budgetary matters, school office management, and legal considerations affecting the schools. As noted in the introductory paragraphs, leadership procedures and principles rather than detailed "answers" are considered. In all of the subsequent discussion the emphasis is upon the *human factor*, since this volume takes the uncompromising position that a procedure or organization that deserves the name "educational" is one which serves and improves people.

SCHOOL BUSINESS MANAGEMENT

Broadly conceived, business management includes finance and budgetary procedures, school supply orders and storage, bus transportation, insurance programs, and similar elements which facilitate teaching and child welfare, according to such long-time students of administration as Reeder⁷ and Hagman.⁸ The task of creative leadership is to work toward a quality of organizational effectiveness which permits the administrator to spend as little time as possible on mechanics, with concomitant freedom to work for the improvement in the learning experiences of children and youth. This freedom is especially important in those districts of modest size in which the administrator is directly involved in curriculum improvement and where he is likely to have a small corps of clerical and administrative helpers. Specifically, what are some of the means which the leader can use to extricate himself from the tyranny of material duties?

Adequate Help as an Economy and Efficiency Measure. There is a distinct trend in the larger city school systems to conceive

⁷ Ward G. Reeder, *The Fundamentals of Public School Administration* (New York, The Macmillan Co., 1951). Cf. Chapters XIV-XVIII.

⁸ Harlan L. Hagman, *The Administration of American Public Schools* (New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1951). Cf. Chapters XV-XIX.

of the superintendent as the general *educational* director of the total enterprise. Such cities as Indianapolis, Indiana, or Milwaukee, Wisconsin, identify their chief administrative officer as the *General Superintendent of Education*, with the clear recognition that, if he is to be freed from the more mechanical business aspects of the position, adequate subordinate assistance must be supplied. More and more, school boards of the larger cities are coming to realize that their chief executive must be an *educator*.

It is in the smaller school systems where this neat division of labor cannot be effected, largely because of budgetary limitations. However, additional secretarial and clerical help may often be provided in order to remove from the superintendent the necessity of giving personal attention to matters which an efficient clerk may handle with equal, if not greater, facility. Since boards of education often are largely composed of businessmen, it is logical to assume the members will be sensitive to the argument that it is false economy to employ a superintendent of schools at a salary in the neighborhood of \$10,000, and then burden him with responsibilities which could be handled adequately by a \$3,500 clerical assistant. Oosting⁹ has found encouraging evidence among the ranks of business leaders which indicates recognition of the need for employing school business managers to share some of the duties of the educational leader. A more liberal allowance in the school budget for secretarial and clerical help, both to superintendents and to building principals, would partially eliminate the doubtful use of the educational resources represented by administrators in business routine.

Where additional skilled help is unavailable, creative leaders can often find relief by analyzing the technical abilities of the teaching staff. Teachers often have a background of business experience which may be used if a proper adjustment or reduction of their classroom responsibilities is made. Business leaders

⁹ Bernard Oosting, "The Qualifications, Experience, and Education of School Business Managers with Recommendations by Business Managers, Superintendents of Schools, and Business Leaders," unpublished Doctor's dissertation, Northwestern University, Evanston, Illinois, 1953.

in the community also can be called upon for technical advice, and sometimes material assistance, if ingenuity is employed in awakening and directing their interests in the school program.

Any expedient which deliberately avoids coming to grips with the basic issue of how the educational leader shall be expected to spend his time is probably an undesirable one. Until boards of education reach the conclusion that it is unwise and uneconomical to permit leadership to become over-absorbed in business responsibilities, no real solution has been effected. Instead of superintendents being forced into a kind of position which any intelligent person could fill with equal effectiveness without years of professional preparation, every effort should be made to protect the *educational* nature of his leadership, with business administration relegated to a properly subordinate status.

Democratic Procedures as a Resource in Business Management. In certain limited aspects of the management of schools, the coöperative group approach is as effective as in making the decisions which determine the educational program. This is particularly true in such matters as supply ordering and distribution. The educational leader who attempts to determine these matters on the basis of an arbitrary business management approach is certain to run into difficulties which could have been avoided by a coöperative approach. The kinds of material resources that teachers require are, properly speaking, educational decisions which can safely be left to the staff. While the mechanical responsibility of mass ordering should probably be handled by a clerical assistant to the superintendent, it has been found to be advantageous for the teachers to understand the procedures entailed and to coöperate to whatever extent it is possible. It may even be appropriate for the teachers co-operatively to establish the basic policies governing supply ordering, an experience likely to assure coöperation in sharing materials in short supply and facilitating the most economical procedures in wide and equitable distribution. There is no reason to suppose that sharing problems relating to material things will be less effective than sharing those dealing with

educational matters, nor that the group consensus reached cooperatively will be inferior to that achieved by the arbitrary decision of one person.

With respect to supplies, equipment, and other physical items, the staff should be helped to mature to the point where each member feels responsible for improving practices and procedures of procurement, storage, and distribution. As Miller and Spalding put it, "In our democratic system the responsibility for raising an issue rests with the person who perceives it."¹⁰ Teachers will take initiative in helping to improve, say, the requisitioning of supplies, when their ideas are not only welcomed but solicited.

The Delegation of Responsibility. It is difficult to explain why school administrators frequently feel they are not doing their full duty unless the business operation of the school system rests squarely on their shoulders. Many intelligent and insightful educational leaders seem to have a blind spot when it comes to this matter. They seem to feel guilty of shirking if they relinquish details and duties to others.

Some administrators hold to the conviction that business management is their exclusive concern because it would be inconsiderate to foist the routines and duties it involves on others. These leaders reason that teachers usually have a full load of educational responsibilities, and that all other school workers are equally involved in their special assignments; ergo, the business of the school properly belongs to the superintendent. Such administrators should heed T. V. Smith's conclusion: "When a problem that is your problem turns out to involve the attitudes of other people, then you no longer have a problem; you have a predicament on your hands."¹¹ Despite the laudable desire of the leader to spare the faculty additional work, actually he may be ignoring the need to consider their attitudes and opinions by sharing business problems with them.

Encouraging others to share in matters that concern them

¹⁰ Van Miller and Willard B. Spalding, *The Public Administration of American Schools* (New York, World Book Co., 1952), p. 211.

¹¹ T. V. Smith, "The Problem of Freedom in These Times," in C. M. Allen and J. L. Trump (eds.), *Education for Freedom: What Are We Doing?* (Urbana, University of Illinois Press, 1950), p. 11.

should be standard operating procedure in the delegation of business responsibilities. Many an issue has arisen over such minor matters as the amount of money allocated to art supplies or shop equipment as opposed to the amount allotted to physical education gear, bus transportation, or cafeteria services. School leaders who have enviable reputations as effective, democratic administrators may nevertheless detract from their otherwise successful policies by retaining absolute responsibility for apportioning budget expenditures. This can be avoided by the use of the group approach to decisions affecting teachers' supply monies. Problems can lead to "predicaments" by autocratic handling in the realm of school business management just as quickly as they can in those matters which concern educational policies. It is well to delegate decision making, where decisions directly govern faculty activity, to ease the superintendent's load, to take advantage of the knowledge and ability of teachers, and to maintain their morale.

Banishing the Superfluous and the Obsolete . . . New-to-the-job administrators may avoid wasting a great deal of time and effort if they concentrate in the early days of their tenure on the task of reviewing and, as needed, changing obsolete business practices. It is sometimes the practice in schools, as in any business, to retain practices simply because they have become customary. One is reminded of the cartoon in which the secretary to a new government official asks if certain records may be thrown away in order to conserve space, and receives the reply that it will be permissible "if carbon copies are kept of everything discarded." It will profit all administrators to examine their business practices with a critical eye in order to ascertain what should be continued, what modified, and what should be discarded. Teachers may help the leader who is seeking to modernize his practices, since they are likely to have fresh ideas by reason of their unfamiliarity with the well-worn office practice or because of the difficulties they encounter when expected to observe "red tape" that a superintendent long since gone once instituted.

... and Streamlining the Pertinent. Many of the business practices in the school will serve the interests of teachers and chil-

dren better if advanced and efficient business principles are applied. Uniformity for its own sake is an undesirable virtue, but uniformity in supply requisitions can lead to desirable economies. Every teacher is aware of the fact that items are usually obtainable at a lower unit cost when purchased in job lots. After a coöperative study of problems of economy in requisitions, teachers can easily be persuaded that it is better to purchase a common supply, such as uniform and standard types of tempera paint or construction paper, in order to provide a sufficient supply to all at lower cost. Decisions with respect to staple supplies, such as paper, paint, or pencils, made in the spring or at the beginning of the academic year by and for all teachers will make it possible to place orders at a considerable saving over the cost of ordering such supplies piece-meal and only when they have run out.

Teachers can be depended upon to coöperate enthusiastically with the leader who encourages them to find ways of getting the most out of money set aside for educational materials, especially when the saving may be used for more or for better supplies. The following is a partial list of ways in which teachers may be expected to contribute helpful ideas:

- (1) Development of a standard supply list.
- (2) Construction of easy-to-use requisition forms for desired services and supplies.
- (3) Cost and quality studies to determine most economical methods of purchasing.
- (4) Techniques for effecting economies in the classroom use of materials.
- (5) Acceptance of delegated responsibility for actual purchasing or distribution of supplies and equipment within the school.

In working toward a more effective approach to the problems of business management of the school, the leader cannot be expected to be completely original. In fact, it is not necessary to "start from scratch" in setting up good business practices. Plenty of fertile ideas may be found in the literature. For example, the leader may consult the following sources for per-

tinent suggestions: Clark¹² (when to purchase), Lex¹³ (co-ordination of purchases), Pierce¹⁴ (possible economies), Reeves¹⁵ (tests of the quality of materials), Young¹⁶ (co-operative buying), Frisbie¹⁷ (local purchases), Holm¹⁸ (specifications for purchases), and Brown and Byall¹⁹ (getting one's money's worth). For a brief overall summary of general supply services, one may consult Hagman.²⁰

While it would be naïve to suggest that teachers and other workers in the schools can assume the full responsibility for managing the business aspects of the program, there are areas where their views and collaboration may be of pronounced value. It behooves the creative leader to explore every avenue for streamlining the clerical and managerial responsibilities so that his time may be spent more profitably with teachers in the development of the educational program. Where possible, specific business administration chores should be delegated to appropriate subordinates who are technically trained to carry on the work. Where budgetary limitations make this impossible, the leader needs to use ingenuity in avoiding over-involvement in "administrivia."

SCHOOL LAW

In order to be free to work creatively the administrator needs to acquire the sense of security which comes from a knowledge

¹² H. F. Clark, "Index Number for School Supply Prices," *The Nation's Schools*, 2:46-48, September, 1928.

¹³ C. E. Lex, "Coöordinating the Purchases in City, County, and School Board," *American School Board Journal*, 86:24-65, February, 1933.

¹⁴ C. B. Pierce, "Basic Supplies—Their Quantities and Cost," *The Nation's Schools*, 36:30-31, July, 1945.

¹⁵ S. N. Reeves, *Tests of Quality for School Equipment and Supplies* (Nashville, The George Peabody College for Teachers, 1934).

¹⁶ C. P. Young, "Coöperative Buying for Schools," *American School Board Journal*, 93:28, 71, July, 1936.

¹⁷ C. C. Frisbie, "Buying School Supplies Locally," *American School Board Journal*, 117:47ff., October, 1948.

¹⁸ A. J. Holm, "Purchase Specifications for Public Purchasing," *American School Board Journal*, 115:49ff., October, 1947.

¹⁹ E. J. Brown and R. D. Byall, *A Consumer's Research in School Supplies* (Emporia, Kansas State Teachers College, 1936).

²⁰ Hagman, *op. cit.*, pp. 273-283.

of the legal framework within which the schools operate. While it is out of the question to expect the leader to know the details of every school law,²¹ each administrator can be reasonably expected to develop a perspective in which he sees the local school district in relation to the state and to the federal government. Also, leadership should become aware of how and when to check on the limitations to the freedom the individual school is privileged to have under the law, and should know the basic provisions of the state school code which bear most frequently on daily educational practice and the welfare of teachers and children.

Legal requirements, restrictions, and resources, as they affect human beings, are of especial importance to leadership. Some of the kinds of vital legal information with which the administrator should rapidly become familiar for his particular state are proposed below.

The Leader's Knowledge of School Law. Since it is nearly impossible for the leader to be conversant with all phases of school law, it is necessary that he select carefully those items of information which appear to be most important or most likely to claim his attention. Familiarity comes as a result of checking on matters as the need arises in practice. The following areas are suggested as those with which all administrators need to be conversant. Some illustrative examples are included.

Laws affecting children. The leader should quickly learn key legal provisions with respect to the school's authority over children; for example, legal ages for compulsory school attendance, restrictions on corporal punishment, regulations governing vaccination, and school liability for accidents.²² Other questions typical of those which should be investigated are: can the school use local funds for the establishment of nursery

²¹ It is unreasonable for obvious reasons. The *index alone* to one school code (Illinois: 1945 Edition) runs 78 pages, exclusive of supplements, with approximately 60 entries per page! The total: well over 4,500 items ranging alphabetically from "American Indian Day" to "Year, length of school."

²² School codes and legal advisors are not the only source of information for leadership. As an example of a useful aid, cf. The American Association of School Administrators, *School District Liability* (Washington, D. C., The Association, 1953).

education? What legal restrictions are involved in loaning the school bus to a church group to transport children to Sunday School? What is the status of the administrator's authority to suspend or expel a child from school? Under what circumstances, if any, may school attendance be denied any child? How much latitude has the school in setting up special learning facilities for children who deviate physically or mentally?

It is particularly important that the leader know enough about school law to be able to define rather specifically the limits which the state places on proposed policies which he and the staff are contemplating. Within these limitations creative imagination can be used to establish educational procedures calculated to be of maximum benefit to children. It is important to keep in mind that certain ideas proposed may be precluded by legal restrictions.

Laws affecting teachers. Among the laws which are most frequently of importance to the administrator with respect to teacher personnel are those which affect certification, minimum salary, tenure, retirement, and sick leave. It is helpful to appoint annually a teachers' legislative committee to engage in a continuing study of bills pending in the state legislature which pertain to personnel. Since teachers are personally affected by these laws, they probably can be counted on to study and to follow developments at least as diligently as would the administrator. Therefore, leaders may depend upon informed teachers keeping them up-to-date on laws which affect the teaching staff.

Curriculum legislation. Unless they seem to infringe on academic freedom, curriculum prescriptions determined by the state legislature usually are not studied by educators as closely as they should be. State codes frequently bristle with specific, itemized requirements (e.g., the teaching of temperance, special days to be observed) which sometimes are overlooked or ignored because of their very number. Great care should be exercised by the state legislature in studying curricular proposals supported by pressure groups to insure that enactments are both desirable and feasible, and obsolete statutes should be repealed. If local autonomy is a desirable principle, greater

resistance should be shown to the tendency of the state legislature to impose restrictions and requirements on the educational program which clutter up the school year with artificial and mechanical activities that do little to improve the quality of learning.

Financial legislation. The laws governing the expenditure of public money must be understood by administrator and faculty alike, if only in self-protection. Monies available for special education or pupil transportation and special subsidies available to districts with marginal assessed tax valuations can be lost through ignorance or through faulty procedures in making application. Legal requirements which must be met in order for a district to qualify for state-disbursed tax funds also must be reviewed at frequent intervals. Local tax rates, limits on tax levies, and ceilings on bonded indebtedness should be understood by the leader for obvious reasons. The most creative of instructional practices can languish unless heed is given to the funds essential for their continued support.

Other legal considerations. Far too many to be singled out for more than mention are such matters as textbook legislation, prescribed procedures in budgeting and school elections, health and safety laws designed to secure decent school housing, and provisions bearing on the carrying of school insurance. Since he cannot be expected to have every legal opinion or enactment at his fingertips, the administrator will find it helpful to develop a kind of personal "radar system" which alerts him to the spotting and recognition of potential legal questions or problems on which he must inform himself. If he does not do so, situations with respect to which he should have legal information may arise and cause acute embarrassment.

When it is possible to find a member of the school staff who has a definite bent toward legal problems and procedures, perhaps even legal training, it may be expedient to call upon him as a special aide and counselor in problem situations. At times it will be helpful if the staff as a whole accepts the responsibility of perusing legal codes for the purpose of acquainting itself with certain restrictions and opportunities represented in

state laws, for instance, those that bear on local plans or proposed changes in the curriculum. It is certain that the extent to which all teachers are informed concerning such matters will have a bearing on the intelligence with which they pursue valid educational objectives.

Acquaintance with one or two good books dealing with school law²³ and with a file of pertinent related material,²⁴ plus a reasonable ability to use the state *School Code* in locating requisite information, are preparatory steps the administrator must take in order to free himself to provide realistic creative leadership.

In any event, the main purpose of knowing school law is obviously that of helping teachers to understand the legal context in which they must learn to work. Certain laws are helpful in that they provide opportunities, through state subsidy and permissive legislation, for teachers to enhance the learning environment for children. Others are restrictive in that they set the limits beyond which teachers are not permitted to go. In some cases, laws apply rather specifically to requirements which the administrator alone will need to meet. In every case, an intelligent understanding on the part of *teachers* is indispensable to the best operation of the school. While it would be unnecessarily burdensome for teachers to be urged consistently to study the school law, a basic understanding of its provisions and applications is likely to aid in their daily work and enhance their professional standing. Creative leaders will be especially interested in helping teachers to study and acquaint themselves with those laws which bear directly on classroom procedures.

SCHOOL FINANCE

As indicated in the chapter title, the examination of school finance made here is limited to a few examples of concern to

²³ For example, Madaline K. Remmlein, *School Law* (New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1950).

²⁴ Typical of related materials worth saving: The American Association of School Administrators, *Managing the School District Insurance Program* (Washington, D. C., The Association, 1953).

leadership because they pertain to his relationships with the faculty. Three topics have been chosen as representative of those which can or should involve school personnel: educational values and school finance, staff participation in budgeting, and salary policies.

Educational Values and School Finance. Good financial practices can be built around values coöperatively evolved by administrator and faculty, and prepared as policy recommendations which the leader presents to the board of education. In those cases where school funds directly influence educational practices, it is desirable that the teachers' views on these practices determine the financial policy rather than the other way around. In such specific matters as the purchase of school supplies this principle is clear. As it bears on the more remote question of the budget as a whole, the function of the faculty in shaping policies and recommendations is less evident.

While no one denies that there are certain aspects of the budget which permit little if any modification in terms of the school's educational values (bonded indebtedness, insurance, and fixed charges are examples), a good share of the operating expenses of the school are modified and controlled by *someone's* educational values. In too many instances, the values that determine the construction and operation of the budget are those of the members of the board of education, usually influenced somewhat by the board's chief executive and by pressures from the community. Teachers' values, of recognized importance as they apply to curriculum practices, are often ignored when it comes to the question of how the educational funds shall be spent. Consistency demands that, if coöperatively derived educational values are desirable as a basis for the curriculum, they represent the fundamental basis for determining the distribution of those monies in the budget which bear directly on the classroom programs.

Staff Participation in Budget Planning. In certain respects, a well-planned budget is impossible to attain without the advice of teachers expressed through coöoperative group participation. No one can know better than teachers the needs of the class-

room situations which should be recognized in decisions pertaining to budgetary allotments.

It is here proposed that the first step in planning the annual budget be an intensive study of the situational needs of teachers, with ample opportunity for them to indicate the basic financial requirements for a well-supported program. A list should be compiled, not only of supplies and equipment desired, but of those needed repairs, replacements, and additions to the physical plant which are apparent to teachers.

A second step would be to estimate the total cost involved in satisfying such requests. The estimated sum must then be reconciled with the amount of money available. Compromises, modifications, and reductions can then be made by the staff in terms of the financial limitations that must be observed. The final agreement reached should represent the best effort of which the teachers are capable to articulate personal desires for supplies and material into a framework of the total needs which must be recognized.

School budgets, like family budgets, never quite stretch to cover all the items that seem necessary. Inevitably, expenditures must be surveyed in terms of both indispensable and less pressing needs. The staff might be encouraged to list their estimations of need in at least *three* categories:

- (1) *Indispensable items*: fixing a leaky roof, buying additional classroom furniture to seat the expanded enrollment of the school, purchasing additional school supplies for the larger number of children, replacing a worn-out movie projector, etc.
- (2) *Important items*: expanding the number of reference books in the library, increasing the amount of money available for film rentals, replacing out-moded furniture with more up-to-date tables and chairs, purchasing a cyclorama for the stage, adding new shelving and cabinets in the arts and crafts laboratory, etc.
- (3) *Desirable items*: building addition which will house a comfortable teachers' lounge, employing specially trained personnel for guidance purposes, releasing the principal from

teaching so that he may give more time to helping teachers improve their instruction, and providing him with full-time help in the office.

The examples given above represent *opinions* of what is indispensable, important, and desirable. A staff which undertakes the construction of a similar list will undoubtedly arrive at a different list of priorities, based on its particular set of educational values and on varying circumstances and conditions. Placement in the categories used above is entirely relative to a given school situation. In other words, a list of itemized needs becomes "authoritative" only as staff members interact and give voice to their particular needs. Through coöperative planning and consensus each staff will need to determine its own position with regard to these matters.

Obstacles to the Development of a Sound Salary Policy. The salary policies in local school districts are among the more important matters with which the administrator deals. The psychological "health" of the school system depends to a considerable extent on the effort of the community to pay salaries which will attract and retain the services of top-notch teachers. It is difficult in the extreme to sustain morale and to encourage professional effort unless teachers are convinced that everything possible has been done to furnish the wherewithal for a satisfying intellectual and social life. While it would be misleading to give the impression that all one needs in order to achieve a satisfied staff is a high salary schedule, it undoubtedly helps!

The low pay of teachers is the topic of many articles and books published for decades past. Nearly everyone concedes that teaching as a life work could be made attractive to a larger number of competent people if the matter of financial reward could be improved. But, the question of an improved salary level does not hinge solely on the matter of raising the salaries of the existing staff. It is much more complicated than that. Among these complications the following loom particularly large:

- (1) Since teachers' salaries are dependent upon the taxing

power of the local district, and since this tax base differs greatly among the various communities, it is difficult if not impossible to raise teachers' salaries equitably in all districts. The more wealthy districts are able to pay salaries appreciably higher than those which can be offered by less economically privileged communities. This may lead to greater teacher-satisfaction in the richer districts, but the total effect on public education is not beneficial. The problem of taxation, particularly as it refers to the usual tax base, real estate, is inextricably bound up in the question of teachers' salaries.

(2) When increases in teachers' salaries are contemplated, administrators and boards of education may be confronted by a conflict between two forces in the community, a conflict which may exist within one and the same person. On the one hand, parents and other community members are anxious to improve the educational opportunities of children, a condition which is partly dependent upon the ability of the school to attract well-qualified personnel, and on the other hand, they resent the high cost of schools and wish to reduce expenses. Bond issues and increases in school tax rates are occasionally defeated in communities where there is general good-will toward the schools. Some of the most outspoken critics of modern education suggest that the solution to many educational ills lies in sharply increasing teachers' salaries.²⁵ But, like as not, the shortage of qualified teachers has contributed as much to the higher salaries as has the idealism on the part of the community.

(3) Salary schedules almost universally are constructed on the assumption that salary level and yearly increments should be based on the number of years of preparation and of experience the teacher has accumulated. Whether this basis for payment should be continued is an emotionally charged question. As Woodring has noted:

It appears that many teachers fear any type of merit system which is based upon anything other than length of service and

²⁵ Cf. Albert Lynd, *Quackery in the Public Schools* (Boston, Little, Brown and Co., 1953), Chapter X.

formal education. There is some basis for this fear because merit systems have in the past been based all too often upon the ratings of principals, and these ratings have sometimes been based upon prejudice or political considerations rather than upon competence in teaching.²⁶

As one outcome of this assumption, most salary schedules are "automatic," with little or no recognition given to the teacher who exerts himself "beyond the call of duty."

Since leadership is so directly and deeply involved in the problems which salaries and salary schedules play in the development of a well organized and soundly based educational program, special attention is given this issue in the following section. Additional space here seems justified by certain inconsistencies in the view that "there is no yardstick for measuring in dollars how much better one teacher is than another."²⁷ To cite Woodring again:

. . . the present salary schedules seem to indicate that we have such a yardstick. They clearly imply that a teacher with nine years' experience is better than one with eight years' experience and that one with five years of college is better than one with four years, or perhaps the implication is that the older teacher and the one who has spent more on his education needs more money.²⁸

NEW APPROACHES TO OLD SALARY SCHEDULE PROBLEMS

Whenever there is an appreciable change in the cost of living, the human problems involved in devising or modifying salary schedules or policies are accentuated. Since the dollar has chronically fluctuated, but generally edged downwards, in buying power during the past 40 to 50 years, it seems reasonable to conclude that educational leaders have a pronounced

²⁶ Paul Woodring, *Let's Talk Sense About Our Schools* (New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1953), p. 159.

²⁷ *Ibid.*

²⁸ *Ibid.*

and perpetual set of problems to which definitive thinking should be applied.

Salary Schedule Dilemmas. It would be difficult to catalogue *all* the problems which may arise as a result of adopting a salary schedule, because new ones are continually turning up. It is simpler, and perhaps more important, to chronicle those that recur or continue to be problems without apparent solutions.

(1) Perhaps the basic question which educational leaders need to ask themselves is simple: Shall there be a salary schedule at all? Most school systems, but far from all of them, have answered this in the affirmative. It is clear that the adoption of a salary schedule immediately involves further questions which are difficult to answer—on what basis shall salaries be determined? Usually, this is answered by establishing years of preparation and experience as the base, despite the difficulties and problems which that decision incurs.

(2) If the beginning salary and yearly increments are to be determined by arbitrary measures such as the number of years one has been employed, and the number of years of attendance at a teacher education institution, how can recognition be given to those with special competence and skill? It is a false assumption to hold that *all* training and experience is of equal worth, or that a person with three years of college attendance is less valuable than one with four.²⁹ The adoption of specific measures, such as years of preparation and experience, threatens to become a mere counting procedure which avoids the necessity of making value judgments.

(3) The alternative to an automatic preparation-experience type of schedule is equally undesirable. If judgments concerning the *worth* of a teacher are to be made, *who* shall make them? In one eastern state this question was "answered" by state legislative action requiring that the building administrators make such judgments, despite the likelihood that freedom

²⁹ This was confirmed by W. A. McCall's research. Cf. his *Measurement of Teacher Merit* (Raleigh, The North Carolina State Department of Public Instruction, 1952), pp. 21-30.

of thought and freedom to teach according to one's conviction are threatened when someone in authority has the power to determine each teacher's monetary compensation. When administrators are able to withhold salary increases from teachers who do not measure up to their personal scale of educational values, no one can blame the teacher for attempting to satisfy the *administrator's* concept of good teaching—if he wishes to obtain a recommendation for salary increase. Maneuvering for status, and a desire to "please the boss," are inevitable concomitants.³⁰

(4) What shall be done about the teachers who have come within the shield of tenure, but are making a contribution to the development of children's experiences which, by all reasonable standards, is far from satisfactory? Will they be given the same increases and recognition for their services that all others receive? This dilemma is closely related to the ones mentioned above, merely presenting the negative side of the problem.

(5) A knottier problem is presented when one examines the economics of teaching. At present, the position is generally held by educational writers that one should receive equal pay for equal service regardless of race, creed, color, or sex.³¹ This policy tends somewhat to favor younger unmarried women teachers, especially if they have no dependents and are able to live at home while teaching. Beginning salaries, and to some extent most salaries, make it nearly impossible for a young male teacher with a family to provide a standard of living comparable to one he might attain in various jobs in labor or the business world. While no one will hold that the unmarried woman teacher is undesirable, it can be averred with equal fervor that it is undesirable to fill teaching ranks with predominantly this type of person. Most educational leaders would prefer to have a balance among men and women, married and unmarried, constituting the teaching personnel.

³⁰ Cf. Chapter Five, p. 99, particularly the reference to McCall's *Measurement of Teacher Merit*, cited immediately above.

³¹ This also has become a matter of law in some localities, e.g., in Illinois, where in the 1940's a so-called "equal pay for equal work" bill was enacted to discourage schools from paying higher salaries to men than to women with equivalent duties, experience, and preparation.

Another factor, not always noted by educators, is that teaching has been looked upon as a stepping stone to higher social and economic status by fine, vigorous, intelligent, and aggressive members of under-privileged groups. A study of the composition of the enrollment at one teachers college, for instance, revealed that, for the past 50 years, a high proportion of students entering teaching have come from whatever socio-economic group in the community was currently striving for social recognition.³² Because wages in various trades and occupations have increased more rapidly than teachers' salaries, with concomitant increases in prestige for the former groups, many first-rate persons may begin to look for status in other lines of endeavor.

(6) If mere time-serving is not to be the basis on which progress on the schedule is determined, what shall the foundation be? What other factors may be legitimately considered as bases for determining the teacher's increased value to the school? If the alternative of subjective judgment by the administrator is to be avoided, some such question must be answered.

Some Views on Salary Schedule Theory. Before a concrete schedule of salary payments, with differentials for varieties in background of preparation and professional qualities, can be constructed, certain basic principles must be established. The following list is suggestive of those which seem to merit some consideration:

- (1) Faculty participation should be obtained in planning salary policies so that principles and practices proposed for adoption by the board of education reflect convictions of the persons most directly affected by them.
- (2) A *definite* salary schedule, or a set of clear-cut policies on which such a schedule is based, should be constructed in consultation with the staff. The administration needs a guide of some sort as a basis for fair salary agreements; the staff needs the assurance that there is no favoritism in fixing salaries.

³² Statement made by Dean Cook, Chicago Teachers College, at a meeting of the Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, NEA, in Chicago, February 1953.

- (3) Salary differentials paid on the basis of sex, teaching assignment, dependency, or other personal factors should be avoided if possible. Implementation of this principle will necessitate the establishment of a salary schedule high enough to attract persons without detriment to their economic welfare.
- (4) Under some circumstances, reasonable additional salary should be allowed for teachers who perform services above the established normal teaching load. This may be controlled through a "load formula" which is understood by and acceptable to all.
- (5) Beginning salaries should not be disproportionately high, reflecting a frantic effort to recruit teachers, to the detriment of long-time teachers' salaries. On the other hand, beginning salaries must be high enough to compete successfully with those offered in comparable occupations.
- (6) Provisions should be made to motivate the teacher to improve by permitting him to earn an increasing income on a basis other than length of service alone.
- (7) Various types of leaves-of-absence should be provided: study, health, maternity, etc.
- (8) Retirement policies should be considered in relation to the annual wage. This relationship is being built into retirement policies in some state legislation at the present time.
- (9) The staff should be deliberately and systematically helped to understand the total financial situation of the school system of which the funds for salaries are but a part. They should have full information as to how assessed valuation, tax rates, and state aid bear on their financial welfare.
- (10) For convenience in personal budgeting, salaries should be paid over a 12 month period, rather than 9 or 10 months, with the option of drawing summer pay in advance if needed to finance study or travel plans.

Developing a Salary Policy Consistent with Good Human Relations. No salary schedule can be devised to serve as a master plan for all districts. It is, however, probably important to suggest how the theoretical principles listed above might be

applied creatively in a practical situation. The salary policies discussed below are, therefore, not set up as absolute goals, nor is the schedule diagram (Figure 30) to be interpreted as a model. Rather, they are presented to urge critical examination of the more conventional, less imaginative, type of schedule depicted in Figure 31, in the hope that thinking in local districts will be stimulated.³³

The parallelogram-shaped schedule in Figure 30, as the caption suggests, was devised in the belief that it would serve to motivate self-improvement *by recognizing teacher initiative*. The ten horizontal steps at the top of the scale represent automatic increments which terminate at a low salary ceiling at the end of a decade of service.³⁴ The automatic salary ceiling deliberately is made low to encourage teachers to earn the readily obtainable "Initiative Units" which make up the vertical steps in the left-hand margin. These Initiative Units carry with them permanent and cumulative increases which not only add to the teachers' salary *at the time they are earned*, but also extend the salary ceiling from \$4,400 to a top of \$6,900 at the end of 20 years. Initiative Units might be earned by advanced study, through approved and significant travel, by engaging in institutionally useful work, or by other activities deemed appropriate in the local school district. It should be apparent that the specific selection of what shall comprise exact requirements for these Units should be accomplished through the participation of all members of the teaching staff.

Features of the schedule which are not immediately self-evident include:

(1) The number of Initiative Units a teacher can acquire without teaching experience is limited. A maximum of not more than three Units (equivalent, say, to a Master's degree) is immediately granted to the beginner. If, when employed, he can qualify for additional Units because of previous travel ex-

³³ The writers are indebted to various Winnetka, Illinois, teachers whose evaluations influenced the preparation of the proposed schedule.

³⁴ The actual salary figures used in the diagram were chosen arbitrarily in multiples of \$100 and \$150. Fluctuating living costs preclude recommending salary levels which might legitimately apply in a given locality.

	YEARS OF TEACHING EXPERIENCE																					
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	
INITIATIVE UNITS	0	3400	3500	3600	3700	3800	3900	4000	4100	4200	4300	4400										
	1	3550	3650	3750	3850	3950	4050	4150	4250	4350	4450	4550	4650									
	2	3700	3800	3900	4000	4100	4200	4300	4400	4500	4600	4700	4800	4900								
	3	3850	3950	4050	4150	4250	4350	4450	4550	4650	4750	4850	4950	5050	5150							
	4		4100	4200	4300	4400	4500	4600	4700	4800	4900	5000	5100	5200	5300	5400						
	5			4350	4450	4550	4650	4750	4850	4950	5050	5150	5250	5350	5450	5550	5650					
	6				4600	4700	4800	4900	5000	5100	5200	5300	5400	5500	5600	5700	5800	5900				
	7					4850	4950	5050	5150	5250	5350	5450	5550	5650	5750	5850	5950	6050	6150			
	8						5100	5200	5300	5400	5500	5600	5700	5800	5900	6000	6100	6200	6300	6400		
	9							5350	5450	5550	5650	5750	5850	5950	6050	6150	6250	6350	6450	6550	6650	
	10								5600	5700	5800	5900	6000	6100	6200	6300	6400	6500	6600	6700	6800	6900

FIG. 30. A salary schedule designed to motivate self-improvement without recourse to merit rating as a means of fixing salaries. (See accompanying text for interpretation.)

periences or study, he may receive automatic financial recognition for them as his teaching experience accumulates.

(2) A Unit may be earned through a summer of graduate study (e.g., one-third of the credit requirements for the Master's degree), through a summer of educationally valuable travel (with limitations placed on the Units awarded for domestic travel), or through institutionally useful work during the summer in the local district (e.g., in the preparation of curriculum materials).

(3) Up to ten Units conceivably may be earned without taking an advanced degree, although this would be unlikely. The value of this provision lies in the fact that the local district and the teacher's judgment thus control what he does in the way of self-improvement; his program of in-service growth is not controlled by college requirements alone, and he is not penalized financially if he postpones work in a degree program in order to pursue study which is more directly related to his teaching duties.

(4) The local district's holding power is increased. Teachers who have earned one or more Units can look forward to pay increases running up to as many as 20 years, or 10 beyond the automatic ceiling of \$4,400, as their service accumulates. This should help to dissuade teachers from changing jobs.

An important question as yet unanswered is, "Who shall decide what self-improvement activities shall qualify for a Unit?" In districts of small to average size, it is proposed that an elected group of teachers, perhaps three or four, a principal, and the superintendent serve each spring as a Review Panel. It would be the responsibility of this group to approve in advance, to modify, or to reject proposals from the teachers as to activities they hope to pursue in order to earn an Initiative Unit. Upon producing evidence of completing the work or study experience at the close of the summer, the teacher moves into a more advanced position on the salary schedule.

The proposed salary schedule seems representative of the sort of imaginative thinking in which creative leadership should engage in coöperation with the faculty. In the first place, it

SOMEVILLE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

BASE PAY SCHEDULE FOR CERTIFICATED EMPLOYERS

SALARIES FOR CLASSROOM TEACHERS

		Beginning salary	Annual increase	Maximum salary
<i>Group I:</i>	Without B.A. degree.	\$3500	\$150	\$5000
<i>Group II:</i>	With B.A. degree ...	3600	175	5350
<i>Group III:</i>	With M.A. degree ...	3700	200	5700
<i>Group IV:</i>	M.A. plus 36 quarter hours	3800	225	6050
<i>Group V:</i>	With earned doc- torate	4000	250	6500

NOVILLE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

SALARY SCHEDULE

Years of experience	No degree	B.A.	M.A.	M.A. plus 24 semester hours
0	\$2800	\$3100	\$3300
1	3000	3300	3500
2	3200	3500	3700
3	3350	3700	3900	\$4100
4	3500	3900	4100	4300
5	3650	4050	4300	4500
6	3800	4200	4450	4700
7	3950	4350	4600	4850
8	4100	4500	4750	5000
9	4600	4900	5150
10	4700	5000	5300
11	5100	5400
12	5200	5500

FIG. 31. Conventional salary schedules illustrating relationships among teaching experience, advanced academic preparation, and wages in many school districts.

recognizes the initiative teachers display in seeking to improve themselves. Teachers are not automatically paid a like salary even if their preparation and experience coincide. Second, subjective merit rating and rating scales are avoided, but a jury

(with a voting majority of the teacher's peers) sits as a panel to review the merit of his proposed self-improvement activities.³⁵ In effect, meritorious *effort* is recognized without the use of the rating scales to which so many valid objections have been raised.³⁶ Third, the salary range at the upper levels of the schedule moves toward that of the "career salaries" which seasoned, well-prepared teachers deserve.

Clearly, the Initiative Unit Schedule does not answer all the problems of fair play and sound fiscal policy that the administrative leader may seek to answer. It should, however, make the point that leadership must strive to devise new and improved practices by breaking the mold of the conventional salary policies which have led to interminable argument with respect to the appraisal of competence, extra allowances for degree or dependents, and, in some instances, have resulted in damage to the quality of personal relationships within a school system. The size and wealth of districts, the maturity of personnel, local traditions—all of these bear on the nature of the salary policies as finally adopted for a given year. It was the purpose of the preceding paragraphs not to dictate solutions but rather urge that more creative thinking be done in attaining more promising solutions than generally have been found to date.

To summarize, salary policies should be appraised to ascertain whether they are consistent with good human relations and morale:

- Is there a clear-cut salary schedule or policy to remove the uncertainty of annual bargaining over pay checks?
- Are the actual salaries paid reasonable in terms of local living costs?
- Do teachers feel that policies are based on "fair play"—that

³⁵ Conceivably, such a jury could, in the case of an incompetent teacher, conclude that *no* self-improvement activity would improve his work, and deny salary increments. This is "merit rating" of a sort, but it is not open to the criticisms of subjective rating by the administrator alone since it involves a coöperative staff decision. A group appraisal probably would be appreciably less subject to bias.

³⁶ Cf. The Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, *Better Than Rating* (Washington, D. C., The Association, 1950), p. 34ff.

there is no favoritism, no serious distortion of the principle of equivalent pay for equivalent contribution to the educational program?

- Is self-improvement recognized as a basis for salary payment as well as mere years spent on the job?
- Is arbitrary and subjective administrative rating of teachers avoided as a foundation for advancement?
- Do teachers have a share in the process of studying and suggesting improvements in the salary program?
- Are teachers enlightened as to the total financial picture of the school district?
- In general, do teachers feel that they are being given full and fair consideration in the light of the financial limits of the budget? Do they "feel good" about their financial lot in life?

SUMMARY

Even those administrative leaders who generally work creatively with the staff in the improvement of teaching and learning sometimes tend to become dogmatic insofar as school business management and matters of school law and finance are concerned. This is understandable both in view of the dubious authoritarian traditions pertaining to business procedures and the commendable desire of many administrators to spare teachers the added physical and psychological load of participation in the study of material problems, legal involvements, and financial dilemmas.

The concept of coöperative group leadership does not, however, end at the blurred borderline between instruction and business administration. Chapter Sixteen recognized that physical and material problems involve teachers, children, and other citizens in the community and that solutions of these problems should, therefore, incorporate their views to some degree. Particular heed was given to the need for leadership to recognize that business management decisions, legal problems, and financial policies should be judged not only in terms of how they work in a mechanical sense, but how they contribute to the maximum welfare of all concerned.

School law, finance, and salary policies were considered at some length. Especial consideration was given to the dilemmas involved in the fixing of teachers' salaries, a discussion which resulted in the presentation of a schedule for encouraging meritorious contributions to the school system without the difficulties which ordinarily cluster around the subjective merit rating by the principal.

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CHAPTER SEVENTEEN

PERSONAL AND PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION FOR CREATIVE LEADERSHIP



CESARE LOMBROSO, famous Italian physician and criminologist of the turn of the century, tells the story¹ of a new patient who sought out the celebrated practitioner, Dr. Abernethy. After a painstaking examination Abernethy concluded that his visitor's depression and poor health were the result of psychological rather than physical problems.

"You need amusement," the doctor said. "Go and see Grimaldi the clown. He will make you laugh, and that will be better for you than any drugs I might prescribe."

The unknown patient sat silent for a moment, his face working with emotion. Then he exclaimed softly, "But, my God! I am Grimaldi!"

The unhappy clown was unable, through his work, to find the very pleasure he brought to others. The means to dissipate his own sadness did not come within its range. The educational leader, in contrast, has within *his* profession ample opportunity to find the means to personal and professional success and satisfaction. The concluding chapter examines some of the personal

¹ In *The Man of Genius*, Chapter II, Part I. (Several editions.)

requisites and components of preparation for able leadership which build the inner security and confidence requisite both to personal happiness and to good administration.

SATISFACTIONS INHERENT IN ADMINISTRATIVE LEADERSHIP

Although the responsibilities and duties of administrative leadership may sometimes be heavy, such onerous qualities as they may upon occasion involve are more than compensated for by the great range and variety of channels for self-expression through which the leadership function operates in American schools. No principal, superintendent, or supervisor need worry lest he have repetitive experiences every year for 20 years. The inherently varied structure of his job guarantees fresh adventures in the realms of human relations and educational inquiry with each year that passes.

The ever-new quality of the developments in his job is itself a source of satisfaction to the administrator or consultant of vigorous intellect. In few other positions does one encounter such appealing combinations of stimulating duties and tasks. Consider the chances for the expression of varied personal interests and for individual growth through activities which involve business management, law and finance, the need to engage in research and to gather and analyze statistical data. Add to these the human elements of work with teachers and, at least to some extent, work with children. Include further opportunities in local curriculum development and the widening participation in professional organizations at the state and national levels that comes with increasing maturity—if one but seeks it. Lastly, add the professionally rewarding opportunities for service in community activities. The total of these diverse sources of satisfaction promises more than enough personal reward to justify the effort which must be invested in attaining them.

Worthwhile Satisfactions Are Earned. The personal satisfactions to be found through creative leadership in administrative-supervisory positions are almost entirely the outcome of per-

sonal efforts—the investment the would-be leader is willing to make in himself. Early in his professional career it is important to decide whether he is willing to put forth the time, energy, and money which must be given without stint in order to merit a leadership role.

Reference was made earlier² to the concept of "self-selection," a term originated by Willard Olson to describe a process through which maturing children can share in directing their learning experiences. There is an analogous quality of self-selection in deciding whether to try to progress toward a position of responsible leadership. The tyro or novice interested in administration should answer (with utmost candor and as much insight as he can muster) the questions, "Is the rôle of administrative leadership the one for me to pursue? Do I have the interests, the 'drive,' the personal qualities that promise to make the self-selected choice of work in school administration a sensible one?" Unless strong affirmative answers can be made, it is better to look for satisfactions in the professional challenges of classroom teaching, or in a field other than education.

Personal Liabilities and Effective Leadership. Certain personal liabilities can destroy both the satisfactions of the administrator and the quality of his leadership. The following analysis of administrative "characters" is somewhat facetious but far from fatuous.

Examine the types of leadership stereotypes below. The would-be leader who recognizes a stereotype that he must admit, in all fairness, characterizes himself, might well consider that recent job offer which would remove him from the educational profession.

SOME POOR EXCUSES FOR "LEADERS"³

"Rabbit Ears." This person reacts adversely to criticism, sometimes real but often imagined. His supersensitive ears hear

² Cf. p. 85.

³ The writers are indebted to Iverson R. Aultman who prepared a list of "Administrators I Have Known" during a 1951 Northwestern University seminar for educational leaders directed by William C. Reavis and Bertrand L. Smith. The list presented here, with Mr. Aultman's permission, borrows heavily from his original document.

things that weren't even said. He is a victim of a hyperactive imagination and easily develops delusions of persecution.

"Kangaroo." Never stays with a project. Jumps from one thing to another without finishing any of them and has "more loose ends than a mop." Likes to blame others because they "... fail to follow up my ideas."

"Mousey." Hates to face issues. Has an affinity for crawling into small holes during critical situations.

"Wind Tunnel." Gives forth impressive blasts of air, but merely speeds it up rather than changes it. The volume of the "blast" is great but no worthy ideas are carried on it.

"Humpty-Dumpty." Tries so hard to avoid a great fall that he never gets off the fence. Avoids taking a stand on issues and almost always takes the spill he tries so frantically to avoid or to postpone.

"Old Eagle-Eye." Flaps his way slowly down school corridors peering through windows in classroom doors in an effort to spot something on which he can pounce. Teachers rapidly learn to sense when his eye is boring into the back of their heads and avoid doing anything wrong by not doing anything at all.

"Latter-Day Louis XV." This "tired old man" may be only thirty, but he has memorized the philosophy of Louis XV: "*Après moi, le déluge.*" Thinks he can postpone the storm—or any uncomfortable change—as long as *he* is around.

"Journeymen Joe." Never stays in one position long enough to make a contribution. Each new job is appraised as a possible stepping stone to the "Big Time." Takes the credit for everything good in "his" school, although he usually has inherited rather than helped to create it.

"Old Smokey." A veritable genius in the art of beclouding issues and problems in an effort to gain his own ends. When he goes into action the fog becomes so thick that he usually gets lost along with everyone else.

"Worry Bird." Long ago began to substitute worry for constructive activity. Has a birdlike wail and weeps when cornered.

"*Show Boat.*" You can hear this self-seeking extrovert before he comes 'round the bend. Manages to insinuate himself in the forefront for any recognition the school staff may merit.

"*Bre'r Reynard.*" The tricky fox. Prides himself on manipulating people and situations just for the doubtful satisfaction of being "clever."

"*Rubber Stamp.*" Endorses everything automatically. Pleases everyone at first—until they get together and find that he is totally unreliable.

"*Sphinx.*" Has been sitting for a long, long time. Looks wise, but hasn't moved for years.

Undoubtedly many readers will recognize associates and colleagues, past and present, among the fourteen types above. But the main query to answer is, "*Do you see yourself?*" Study, and the slow accumulation of experience, help to build able, creative leaders, but only when there is a solid foundation of personal integrity on which to build. The subsequent sections dealing with preparation for leadership lose meaning unless it is understood that probably no amount of preparation can compensate for serious flaws in the personality of the leader.

PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION AND PERSONAL SECURITY

A high level of professional preparation for educational leaders is essential for their personal and professional security. This use of the term "security" does not refer to the stability associated with long-continued tenure, nor does it refer to the financial security of administrative positions which bring with them five-figure incomes. The reference is to *the inner freedom from anxiety or doubt as to the nature of effective leadership which is the concomitant of professional maturity.*

Real freedom is attained by study and through the gradual accumulation of tested beliefs with respect to what constitutes: (1) the nature and purpose of good teaching and learning, (2) the anatomy of good human relations within a staff and

between school and community, and (3) the qualities which, taken together, make for a good physical setting for the personal, social, intellectual, and physical maturation of children and youth.

Can Leadership Learn "All the Answers?" The beginning of wisdom in school administration probably coincides with a dawning understanding that the educational leader cannot hope ever to have at his fingertips *all* of the answers to the infinitely detailed and rapidly changing educational problems which present themselves during his professional lifetime. He can, however, as proposed in Chapter Two, obtain a broad grasp of principles of learning and of child development, and a sense of direction gained through the continuous examination of his values and the goals which they imply for healthy cultural change.

In fine, the administrative leader should not hope to master "all of the answers" in a search for absolutes, nor attempt to attain the false sense of security of know-it-all self-confidence; but he can master the methods and procedures of group thinking and group action which are helpful in the search for more and better educational procedures. And he can develop personal resources which help to a significant extent in finding answers to educational needs and lacks. This helps to create the inner security built on competence.

The Man, the Position, and the Cultural Setting. Perhaps the best general means to an inner security that is based on competence is a suitable synthesis of the man, his job, and the culture of which both are an integral part. In Figure 32⁴ an attempt is made to portray visually the interrelationships which exist among the educational leader, the position of leadership he is employed to fill, and the cultural environment which bears upon the administrator or supervisory consultant and his functions. Each is influenced interactively by the other two and modifies them in turn.

⁴ The writers are indebted to Professor Daniel R. Davies of Teachers College, Columbia University, for pointing to some of the relationships which need to be considered when studying the improvement of preparatory experiences for practicing and potential educational leaders.

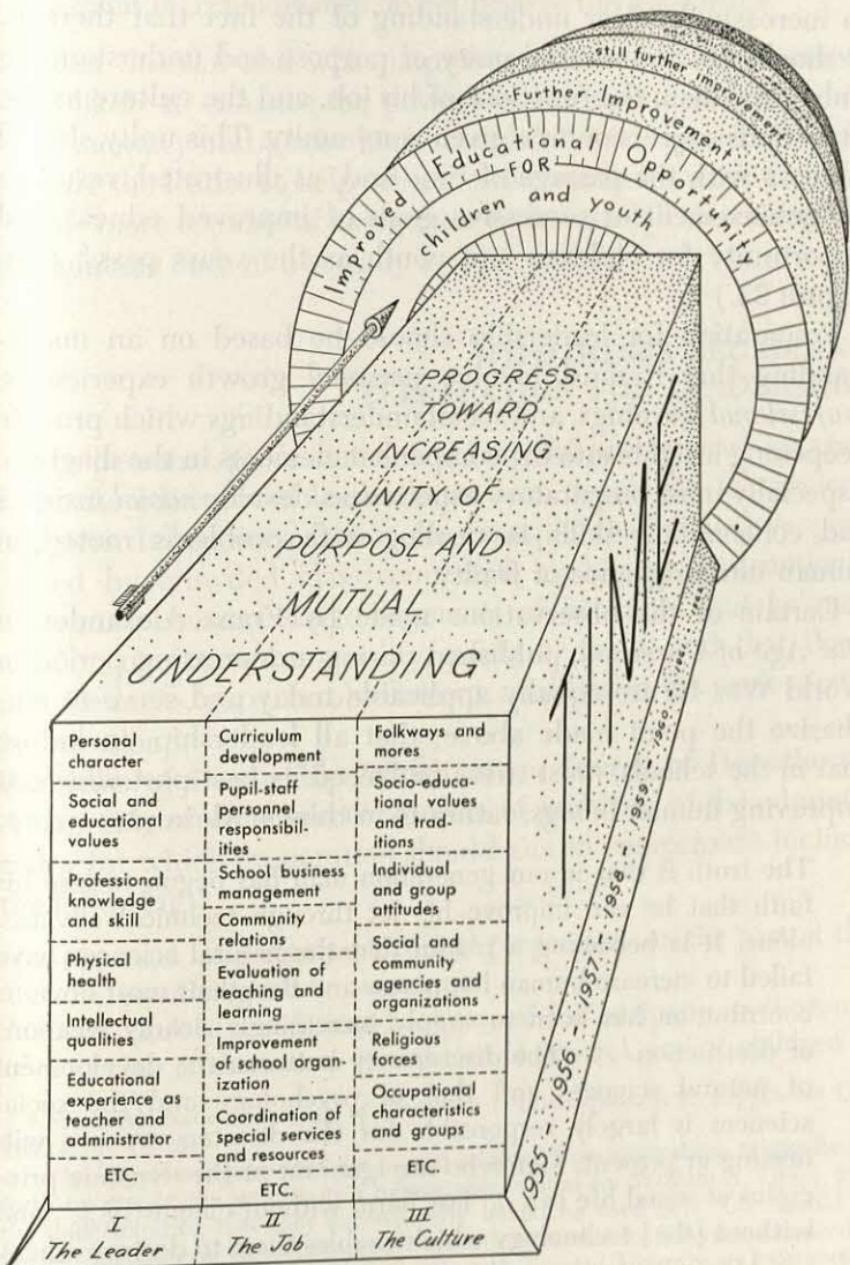


FIG. 32. Interrelationships existing among the administrative leader, the position he occupies, and the cultural setting of which both are a part.

Professional confidence depends upon the development of an increasingly clear understanding of the fact that there is, or should be, an essential unity of purpose and understanding among the man, the functions of his job, and the culture as the latter finds expression in a given community. This unity should increase with the passage of time and, as illustrated, result in the achievement of successive goals of improved educational opportunity for children and youth as the years pass.⁵ (See Figure 32.)

Preparation for leadership should be based on an understanding that it must involve *personal* growth experiences, *professional* learnings, and *social* understandings which provide deepening insights into the component elements in the diagram. Especially must preparatory experiences develop *social* insights and concomitant skills in dealing with problems rooted in human intransigence or frailty.

Certain of the observations made by Franz Alexander in *Our Age of Unreason*, published during a depressing period in World War II, are equally applicable today and serve to emphasize the point made above, that all leadership, including that in the schools, must strive to exceed its best past efforts at improving human beings, rather than things. Alexander wrote:

The truth is that in our generation man has begun to lose his faith that he can improve his lot through technical advance alone. It is becoming a truism that the natural sciences have failed to increase human happiness and that their most obvious contribution has been to supply increasingly deadly weapons of destruction. . . . The discrepancy between the development of natural sciences and that of psychology and the social sciences is largely responsible for the disasters we are witnessing at present. Men who are ignorant of the dynamic principles of social life can do less harm without chemistry . . . and without [the] technology which enables them to destroy others. . . . Men who are incapable of constructive social life and who

⁵ The school staff and children also are an integral part of the picture, but deliberately are omitted lest Figure 30 become even more complicated. Cf. p. 277 for a similar figure in which the interrelatedness of curriculum, child, and culture are portrayed.

utilize their scientific knowledge primarily to subjugate and exploit their fellow men do not deserve this knowledge.⁶

What theories and what improvements in current practices seem likely to enhance the powers and resources of leadership in elementary and junior high schools? What experiences may prepare the leader to help others in the search for ways to make people more capable of using their technical skill to accomplish the humane ends of a socially mature culture?

HYPOTHESES REGARDING PREPARATION FOR LEADERSHIP⁷

The personal, professional, and material problems which confront the educational leader have been developed in previous chapters. It has been shown, for example, that difficulties generated by crowded classrooms and inadequate instructional tools may consume large segments of his time, that he may need to overcome personality quirks or flaws, and that there may be lacks, gaps, or obsolescent qualities in his professional preparation.

Problems of Leadership Which Are a Source of Hypotheses. A sampling of some specific sources of problems of the administrator for which preparation should aim to compensate include the following:⁸

- (1) Lack of recent professional preparation on the part of the practicing administrator.
- (2) Lack of a sufficient background for adequate understanding of the nature of children in general, and of children at

⁶ Franz Alexander, *Our Age of Unreason* (Philadelphia, J. B. Lippincott Co., 1942), pp. 19-20.

⁷ The hypotheses presented are in part adapted from suggestions originally set forth by one of the writers in a monograph, edited by William S. Gray, with the understanding that they subsequently would be used here. Cf. Harold G. Shane, "Hypotheses Concerning the Preparation Needed for Effective Leadership in Improving Reading," in *Promoting Growth Toward Maturity in Interpreting What Is Read*, University of Chicago, Supplementary Monographs, 74:235-239, November, 1951.

⁸ These items were chosen from among 145 problems mentioned by graduate students enrolled in administration classes at Northwestern University during 1951-1952.

early school levels in particular. (E.g., few male administrators have worked extensively with kindergarten-primary children.)

- (3) Lack of familiarity with the results and implications of past and current educational research.
- (4) Lack of an intimate knowledge of the trends and history of educational achievements which furnish a foundation for interpreting and understanding current trends.
- (5) Lack of knowledge and understanding of the cultural trends of the country as they have evolved over a period of 175 years of social experimentation.
- (6) A tendency to use a line-and-staff approach to human relations (originally borrowed from the military, from business and from industry) which no longer is adequate and which the original innovators are rapidly discarding.
- (7) Graduate programs in colleges which permit students in the field of administration to earn advanced degrees without prerequisite understanding of principles, practices, methods, and materials relevant to good teaching and learning. Specifically, this point refers to the tendency of some students to continue work toward an advanced degree in administration without sufficient teaching experience.
- (8) Graduate programs in colleges which over-emphasize the mechanical, legal, financial, and business aspects of administration to the detriment of advanced study in child development, sociology, the curriculum, and similar fields which bear on instruction.
- (9) The lack of provision in most graduate programs for practical experience in administration (internship) for students whose backgrounds have been limited to classroom teaching.

Some Specific Hypotheses. Most specific preparation for administrative-supervisory-consultant leadership is carried on at the graduate level in colleges and universities. The following hypotheses are advanced as a basis for improving graduate study for the potential leader and for enhancing his on-the-job growth.

(1) *Premature graduate work in administration courses should be discouraged.* Some of the more promising young

men and women in teaching are so eager to make an educational leadership contribution that they err by engaging in advanced study before they have had enough experience to make such study in administration of optimum value to them. Except in atypical cases, students should not enroll in administration courses without a reasonable amount of previous classroom teaching, and when possible, with previous work experiences of other kinds as in industry or business.

The authors have consulted a substantial number of students who have taken courses in aspects of school administration and leadership. In an overwhelming majority of cases persons who have had no previous teaching and/or administrative experience report that much of the classwork, reading, and discussion was "over their heads." On the other hand, those who have taught, and particularly those who are currently facing administrative responsibilities and problems, report that they are able to apply their developing insight to practical situations with considerable success.

(2) *There should be improved screening of students to help insure that persons undertaking to prepare for administrative leadership embody a desirable combination of personal, social, intellectual, and physical characteristics.* In effect, graduate faculties in administration should assume a critical attitude toward the would-be leaders which recognizes that admission to a program of study is tentative and that advanced study involves more than mere mental ability or social graces, *per se*. The college or university professor must avoid the doubtful satisfaction of working with large enrollments at the cost of quality.⁹ Especially should there be resistance to the temptation to "build an empire" in the form of strong administration departments by a policy of aggressive recruitment which disregards professional promise in the students enrolled.

The choice of appropriate and valid selection devices is no easy matter. No one has yet come forward with a definitive

⁹ For a clever and significant article indirectly suggesting criteria for appraising would-be leaders, cf. Lowry W. Harding, "Twenty-one Varieties of Educational Leadership," *Educational Leadership*, 6:299-302, February, 1949.

method of determining either what constitute the indispensable characteristics of leaders, or a procedure by which selection may be made. However, it seems reasonable to propose that the following will help to screen out the less promising candidates: Intelligence tests, examinations aimed at revealing the candidate's knowledge of the social and psychological foundations of education, a respectable undergraduate scholastic record, and individual and group interviews by the faculty.

(3) *In the interests of good instructional leadership, too-narrow concentration on administrative specialties should be avoided during the students' first year of graduate study.* As a rule, initial supervisory-administrative success, as in a principalship, involves the ability to help teachers improve their instructional ability more than it involves the ability to cite details of school law or finance. Rarely is the beginning administrator, particularly if a principal, likely to be faced with the necessity of constructing a school building during the first year he is on the job. An expanded knowledge of good teaching and learning is, furthermore, prerequisite to all basic administrative policy and action. Thus, graduate study in fields such as child development and educational psychology, or social studies and elementary science might well precede or at least coincide with specialized administrative courses.

Doubt may also be thrown on the wisdom of overloading administration courses with the minutiae which previously has been dubbed "administrivia." While it is important for the beginning administrator to be able to handle expeditiously the details involved in his responsibilities, it is difficult to see how the college instructor can even begin to anticipate the great variety of special ways in which these details may need to be handled in a particular school system. It also seems intellectually unsound to provide the student with a "bag of tricks" instead of encouraging him to develop an intellectual grasp of the basic procedures and policies which should govern approaches to details. It is reasonable to conclude that a student well-grounded in principles can quickly make specific administrative applications as the need arises.

(4) *Graduate work preparatory to major leadership activities should include carefully planned and substantial contacts with children: actual work or sustained observation in child development centers, good schools, and/or clinics.* Such means to an improved understanding of children will help to fill the gaps in the maturing leader's background with respect to the nature of children at ages four and five or ten and twelve. Administration programs should be devised so as to facilitate and encourage (preferably, to require) such participation in work with children as will complement and supplement the student's total previous contacts with the young.

It should, of course, be acknowledged that most students of administration probably had an undergraduate major in teaching in which some contacts with children and youth were provided. However, a large proportion of applicants for administrative positions in the *elementary* school have backgrounds built at the *secondary* school level. Thus, they need additional experiences to broaden their understanding to include the earlier age levels. Again, there are elementary school administrators who ultimately become superintendents of school systems extending through the twelfth grade. These individuals should have contacts with young adolescents.

(5) *Whenever possible, the experiences of persons preparing themselves for administrative-supervisory positions should involve interneship.* Increased first-hand experience as well as increased familiarity with theory seems to constitute sound graduate level practice. Both the public schools and the colleges need to explore more extensively the ways they can coöperate in the development of interne-type programs that will introduce graduate students to the ways in which on-the-job applications are made of college classroom discussion topics.

Promising types of interneship experience involve a planned and sequential combination of theory and practice occurring in practical relationship. The student might be assigned as an apprentice in some school or school system in which the administrator shows a willingness, and possesses the skill necessary, to guide the developing experiences of the student in coöpera-

tion with the graduate faculty member in administration. Time might well be spent in the school situation, for the most part, with the student returning periodically to the campus for conferences or attendance in a seminar enrolling internes from various schools. The actual sequence of experiences in the internship will, for apparent reasons, be determined more by the developing work associated with the job than by a logically pre-planned "course."

(6) *The developing leadership ability of students should be appraised in over-all terms rather than through isolated appraisal in a number of independent courses.* It is a well-known fact that individual college instructors place somewhat different interpretations on what constitutes competence in their students. Professors also subscribe to different views as to the relative importance of certain skills as factors helping to insure success in administration. Thus, one instructor may believe that facility in research techniques is a highly important skill to develop. Another may reiterate the supreme importance of human relations. A third may spend a great deal of time discussing classroom supervisory procedures. The developing ability of the fledgling leader is more than the sum of assorted competencies. It is their *integration* within him—their interrelated influence on his under-the-skin behavior—that contributes to his ultimate success on the job. A high academic point-average does not necessarily predict probable success of the student, but the combined judgment of all instructors who have worked with him will quite possibly provide a fairly reliable index to present growth trends if not to eventual professional contribution.

It is suggested that students, both in process and as they complete their work, be evaluated co-operatively by several instructors who have some knowledge of their competencies and personalities. It is also proposed that recommendations be made for the further guidance of graduate study prior to the granting of a given advanced degree and that, immediately prior to graduation, the student share in a final evaluation session and a frank discussion of his placement in various

positions in future years. If graduate schools of education are to improve the quality of their service to the public schools in the preparation of prospective leaders, it will be necessary to work even more closely with the schools both in developing candidates and in placing them in positions for which they are suited by their particular personalities and abilities.

(7) *Two years of graduate study and preparatory experiences should be considered minimal for effective leadership.* The possession of the master's degree, representing one year of work beyond the bachelor's, is rapidly becoming a commonplace for classroom teachers. Since the competencies of outstanding leaders include those of superior teachers, and in addition presuppose other skills and abilities, it is appropriate to suggest that two years of study beyond the bachelor's degree is a reasonable investment for the leader to make in his career. The professional status of the leader will be further enhanced by the possession of higher degrees or advanced study. The 16 hypotheses given here clearly imply the need for at least two years of graduate study.

(8) *The preparatory experiences of the leader should help him to recognize learning experiences as related to the concept of developmental tasks.* All aspects of the educational program as conceived here are based on the presumption that they will be planned in accordance with an intimate knowledge of children.¹⁰ Grade placement of subject matter and experiences, promotional policies, and methods of teaching are some of the areas which are dependent upon this knowledge. While it is extremely important that teachers be intimately acquainted with boys and girls, even uniform teacher competence (not now the rule) would not reduce the need for the leader to be able to help them further to improve their insights and understandings as professional knowledge increases. A grasp of the basic patterns of development, and of the tasks which a child must carry out as he advances from one maturity level to another, is standard equipment for the creative educational

¹⁰ Robert J. Havighurst, *Developmental Tasks and Education* (New York, Longmans, Green and Co., 1950).

leader. Some of this insight may be acquired at the undergraduate level, especially if the administrator originally earns his bachelor's degree at an institution which recognizes the importance of the child development approach in teacher education. But, even under these circumstances, it is desirable that graduate work include child study so that the leader possesses insights and understanding upon which he can draw in the process of planning, guiding, and appraising teaching-learning situations in the school.

(9) *The leader's experiences should help him to become permanently mindful of the fact that readiness must be built continually at all levels of development.* As Hildreth points out, too many teachers interpret readiness to be the exclusive concern of teachers of young children.¹¹ The administrator needs to recognize the importance of readiness as a factor in *all* learning at *all* levels. Thus, his preparation must encompass a knowledge of children and their purposes, interests, and needs throughout the range of years the young are in public schools. A few courses pertaining to child development, educational psychology, or developmental tasks may serve to initiate an understanding, but must be supplemented with significant, concrete, and continuing contacts with children to make the knowledge functional.

(10) *The leader's preparation should greatly strengthen his awareness of the importance of good human relations and his skill in improving them within the school.* Plant has pinpointed the dilemma in which each prospective or practicing leader finds himself: "In dealing with people one is forever haunted by the question of how much each individual brings to a given situation—how much his inherent needs for growth predetermine the shifting, kaleidoscopic scenes in which he is involved."¹² Skill in human relations is not built merely by enrolling in a course at the graduate level. A graduate faculty should recognize and accept the fact that human relations are best strengthened by the way they are exemplified in the

¹¹ Gertrude Hildreth, *Readiness for School Beginners* (New York, World Book Co., 1950).

¹² James S. Plant, *The Envelope* (New York, The Commonwealth Fund, 1950), p. 1.

college or university itself and by the success with which the concept of good human relations can be made an integral part of all graduate experience. The total context in which all aspects of leadership responsibilities are learned is the laboratory for the beginning leader. "Good human relations are as good human relations do," is an applicable paraphrase of the old adage.

(11) *The leader's preparation should help him to grasp the idea that all teachers are to some degree teachers in all areas of the curriculum.* If, someday, present defects in curriculum practice are to be corrected in programs in which children's learning experiences are built around problems and activities of importance to them as well as to society in general, the leader must have a broader understanding of the process by which this transition will occur. He will need to be able to help bring all teachers to the point where they see their contribution to the daily life of the school as a portion of a meaningfully directed whole.

Graduate work leading to administrative degrees needs to be re-examined in order to determine to what extent the experiences students are having in learning are consistent with the principles of the sound elementary-junior high school curriculum. Is school finance a subject which may be applied in a school district apart from a consideration of the coöperative group approach? Is it possible to present a reasonably comprehensive picture of all that is involved in planning the curriculum without considering questions of finance, social foundations, or methods of leadership in curriculum designing? One of the puzzling problems in the development of graduate programs is that of determining where one area of concern begins and another ends. It is assumed, judging by common practice, that programs of preparation for leadership must be organized around "courses," with designated amounts of college credit attached to each unit of study. Serious question may be raised concerning the present acceptance of segregated content. One of the most pressing needs at the graduate level is a reconsideration of the organization of abstract experiences now offered to students and the possibility for creating new

articulated administrative sequences, internships, seminars, broad workshops, and the like which reflect at the college level the same values that are sought through functional organization of the elementary and junior high school curriculum.

(12) *The leader should, through his preparation, be helped to recognize elements in the culture which influence the concepts children, teachers, and leaders are developing.* An effective education is one that is based on realities. The development of effective educational programs must, therefore, include an understanding of the forces which are a part of the realities in the lives of the children, their teachers, and the leader himself. The rapidly increasing number of educational agencies outside of the school—television, films, the automobile, scouting, park board recreation programs—have tremendous implications. Administrators who permit themselves to live in a world shut off from these influences are in a poor position to understand their impact on others. Leaders who merely accept these factors and fail to study them likewise are unprepared to deal intelligently with them. One important aspect of any realistic preparation of leaders is an introduction to and acquaintance with the many forces which influence human behavior outside of the school. Nothing short of a study of the socio-cultural environment in which Americans live will suffice.

(13) *The preparation of leaders should stress special competence in at least one field other than administration.* Administration, strictly speaking, is not concerned with a field but with the means of coöordinating *many* fields. The role of the educational leader is, therefore, chiefly one of working with others associated with the schools to articulate and improve their mutual aims, special areas, and grade levels. Through preparation in even a few of the fields—child development, reading, physical education—affected by administrative activity is patently an impossibility. It is, however, wholesome for the leader to continually renew his knowledge in at least one field other than the various phases of administration. To merit the respect of persons who have a field of their own, be it kindergarten-primary, music, history, or shop, it is desirable that the leader earn the right to claim advanced knowledge in one.

The special field of competence may or may not be directly related to the leader's major work. If such a close relationship is deemed appropriate, it would not be difficult to find one pertinent to administration: for instance, the social sciences, particularly such areas as sociology, social psychology, and political science. However, it is less important that the field be closely associated with administration than it is that the leader possess some area of competence which gives him not only appreciation and respect for scholarship but some reputation for it in his own right.

(14) *Practical research experience in the field of education should be an integral part of the educational leader's advanced study.* Since education is not an exact science, it is important that the leader seek opportunities to learn of the difficulties involved in "proving" anything. Many lessons can be learned as he strives to justify a particular educational practice on the basis of collected evidence, experimentation, or action research.¹³ Included in such practical activities are the need for learning the varieties of research techniques (field, library, documentary, controlled, action, etc.) and the approved procedures for recording and reporting results. In essence, this involves not only the ability to *conduct* research but to *describe* it in writing. One of the fields occasionally slighted in school administration programs (at least below the doctoral level) is that of educational statistics. Familiarity with the statistical treatment of data involves an understanding of both the values and limitations of this research tool.

(15) *The leader's preparation should include first-hand contacts with the materials of instruction used in teaching and learning and a knowledge of how to develop a good program in spite of limited resources.* The value of this point seems self-evident. One understands what he has experienced. Through the graduate experience it is essential that the prospective leader have an opportunity to become acquainted with a great variety of materials and resources. The institution guiding his preparation will wish to exercise caution, of course, to avoid influencing the potential administrator in favor of certain ma-

¹³ Cf. Chapter Three, especially pp. 78-81.

terials, especially specific commercial materials, to the exclusion of others.

It is almost always impossible for a graduate faculty to anticipate the circumstances under which a given man or woman will eventually work. If basic selection skills and an acceptable educational philosophy have been developed, it is safe to assume that the individual leader will be capable of guiding able staff choices in whatever real situations are faced. If the leader is to act as a source of suggestions to teachers, it is apparent that his preparatory program should emphasize the techniques of selection as well as the theory of how to use materials.

(16) *Belief in the philosophical and practical values of democratic processes as means to sound curriculum improvements must be developed by the educational leader.* Since this is a basic theme of this entire volume, amplification of this point seems needless.

THE ADMINISTRATIVE LEADER AS A PROFESSIONAL PERSON

The aristocracy of leadership which was characteristic of a medieval day developed at least one concept which remains pertinent in a democracy which deliberately rejects hereditary leadership. This viewpoint is captured in the phrase *noblesse oblige*—rank imposes obligations.

The creative administrator, while he presumably owes his position to ability and personal effort, rather than the accident of ancestry, is bound no less than the feudal overlord to recognize that his work entails responsibilities, that his opportunities create obligations, that his possession of a measure of legally established authority in the school situation implies duties.

Professional Leadership Values Reside in Interaction. The obligation to contribute to his fellow men which is implicit in the role of the creative leader is an *active* obligation. It can be met only through dynamic participation. The true nature of professional leadership is measured by the quality of the administrator's interaction with a great variety of individuals.

Figure 33 is intended to capture the idea that all individuals, including administrators, are constantly interacting with family, neighbors, persons of similar or dissimilar beliefs, and so on. As indicated by the two-headed arrows, the leader influences

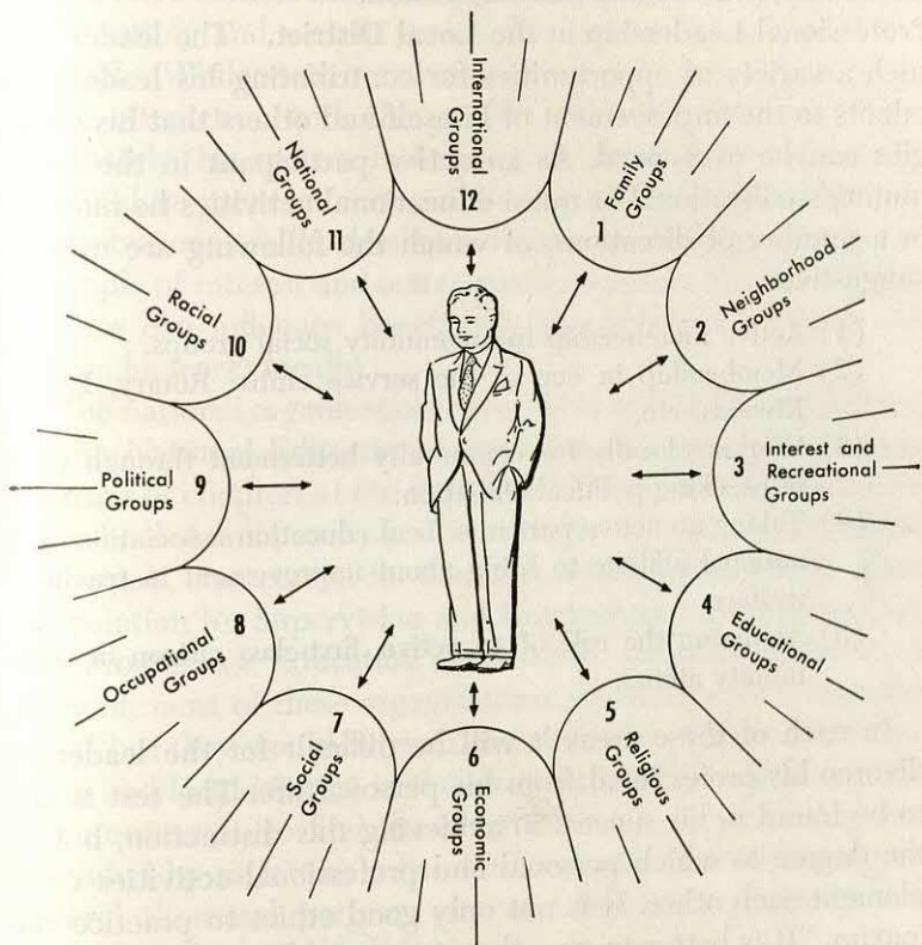


FIG. 33. The values associated with a high quality of leadership reside in the quality of the interaction between the leader and other individuals, groups, and institutions.¹⁴

other human beings (and through them the groups in which they congregate) and they in turn modify *his* emerging value patterns and value-beliefs.

Values reside in interaction, not in things. They reside in the qualitative changes which improve human behavior. The ad-

¹⁴ Figure 33 was suggested by E. T. McSwain, Dean, The School of Education, Northwestern University, during a discussion on September 24, 1953.

ministrator as a professional person thus may be judged by the extent to which he contributes to wholesome changes in children and adults with whom he is associated. He may also be judged by the extent to which he behaves, personally and professionally, in a socially mature fashion.

Professional Leadership in the Local District. The leader has such a variety of opportunities for contributing his leadership talents to the improvement of himself and others that his energies can be over-taxed. As an active participant in the community's educational or quasi-educational activities he may go in a number of directions, of which the following are merely suggestive:

- (1) Active membership in community social groups.
- (2) Membership in one of the service clubs: Rotary, Lions, Kiwanis, etc.
- (3) Working locally for community betterment through non-self-seeking political affiliation.
- (4) Taking an active part in a local education association or a national affiliate to bring about improvement in teachers' welfare.
- (5) Assuming the role of an active, first-class citizen in community affairs.

In each of these areas it will be difficult for the leader to divorce his professional from his personal life. The test is not to be found in his success in achieving this distinction, but in the degree to which personal and professional activities complement each other. It is not only good ethics to practice the maxim, "It is better to give than to receive," but it is also one of the distinguishing marks of the highest type of educational leader.

Professional Leadership at the State Level. The responsibilities of educational leadership do not terminate at the school district boundaries. Each community is, to some extent, related to a larger educational whole. Since education is primarily a state function, with much authority delegated to the local community, many important decisions and actions take place in the wider context. State equalization programs, laws governing educational activities at the community level, legal statutes

which may aid or inhibit local educational freedoms, are all determined at the state level. In addition, local teachers' organizations build up to their greatest influence as they find expression through the larger state associations.

Creative leaders are conscious of their responsibilities in the state setting and seek to serve education on as wide a front as possible. While state activities remove the leader momentarily from interaction with the people with whom he works most intimately, his success in helping the local professional group to build its program more solidly is partly dependent upon his contributions and leadership activities in the larger group. His example of interest and active participation in the state organizations can influence beneficially the behavior of those with whom he works locally.

The national organizations, over 30 of which are departments of the National Education Association, frequently have counterparts or chapters at the state level. The American Association of School Administrators, Department of Elementary School Principals, Association for Childhood Education International, Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, and the Progressive Education Association are cases in point. At present, most of these organizations are making vital contributions, but they would be even more effective if there were more state and local interest in their support and development. It is not uncommon to find the state meetings of national groups attended by as few as a hundred individuals from among the several thousand persons who are dues-paying members in some densely populated areas.

The educational returns to the creative leader who devotes a portion of his time to the support and active participation in various agencies for the improvement of education are sometimes so subtle as to be overlooked. He may personally profit from his wider contact with leaders with whom he can trade experiences, gain ideas for local application, and, in turn, enrich the professional lives of others. Also, contributive participation by an administrator arouses in a faculty considerable admiration and respect for the status he achieves and the credit it reflects on the school district he heads.

Entirely aside from direct, measurable profit, a less definable benefit comes through the strengthening of educational organizations which may exert influence on the up-grading of teaching as a profession. Every major profession has succeeded partly through coöperative effort exemplified by a strong professional agency dedicated to the welfare of the group. The educational leader would do well to consider the extent to which his commitments to the improvement of teachers' organizations contribute in turn to the improvement of teaching in the United States and in his own school system.

Participation in National Leadership Organizations. Everything that has been said about the merits of participation in educational activities at the state level may be applied to the national level. It might even be noted that in many ways the contributions of leadership at the national level are as important as in state or community because they have a beneficial affect on a larger number of people. Conversely, it is difficult for leaders to be specifically helpful at the national level because of the need for more general activities when thousands of school districts are involved.

It is difficult to justify the title "educational leader" for one who takes no interest nor active part in the major educational agency for all teachers and school personnel—the National Education Association. This organization, along with the special departments which are an integral part of it, constitutes the basic instrument by which educators can express themselves in the national scene. Enthusiastic and positive participation in NEA activities comes close to constituting a leadership obligation.

Harding has made a needed contribution to the profession by summarizing and analyzing the work of the National Education Association and its many branches.¹⁵ Among the many historically important contributions of the NEA are the reports of such committees and commissions as these:

¹⁵ Lowry W. Harding, "Influences of Commissions, Committees, and Organizations upon the Development of Elementary Education," in XIIIth Yearbook, the John Dewey Society, *The American Elementary School* (New York, Harper and Brothers, 1953), pp. 169-180.

Committee of Ten (1892). Established standards for secondary schools.

Committee of Twelve (1895). Suggested college entrance requirements.

Committee on the Six-Year Course of Study (1905).

Committee on Economy of Time (1912). Proposed a curriculum selection on the basis of utility.

Commission on Reorganization of Secondary Education (1912-1918). Developed the "Cardinal Principles of Education."

Commission on Reorganization of Elementary Education (1921). Restated the Cardinal Principles more functionally as they apply to elementary age children.

Commission on the Curriculum (1923). Introduced the coöperative approach to curriculum revision.

Committee of One Hundred on Classroom Teachers' Problems (1923). Placed emphasis upon the teacher as an individual.

For the leader who wishes to select the particular group to which he can most profitably contribute his energies, Harding lists and analyzes the following major commissions and departments which are currently active:¹⁶

National Council on Education

National Council on Teacher Retirement

National Commission on Safety Education

Educational Policies Commission

National Commission for the Defense of Democracy

National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards

American Association of School Administrators

American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation

Department of Rural Education

Music Educators National Conference

Department of Classroom Teachers

Speech Association of America

American Educational Research Association

National Association of Secondary School Principals

Department of Elementary School Principals

¹⁶ *Ibid.*, pp. 180-192.

National Council for the Social Studies

International Council for Exceptional Children

Department of Audio-Visual Instruction

National Art Education Association

American Industrial Arts Association

Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development

It is scarcely necessary to state that each of these specialized departments not only welcomes but actively solicits the contributions, leadership, and personal support of all those interested in promoting its purposes.

Participation as a Form of Continuous In-Service Education. Completely apart from and in addition to the significant contributions leaders may make to the improvement of education at the local, state, and national levels, is the personal growth attained by active participation. In the busy life of the average administrator there is the ever-present possibility that he will become immersed in the practical demands of his job and gradually but inexorably drift into an eddy at the side of the stream of educational trends and current activities.

If the administrator is to be assured of continuous self-improvement he must consciously choose a course of action which will make it possible for him to make an educational contribution, yet at the same time stimulate his own continued growth in service. Active participation in professional organizations holds forth this promise. The interactive process of participation permits one to gain while giving. The leader, while meeting his obligation to participate, gains information, skills, growth stimulation, and fresh understanding which keep him alive to the ever-changing developments occurring in education.

THE OBLIGATION TO USE INTELLIGENCE

In 1895 Samuel Walter Foss wrote a poem which he entitled *Path of the Calf*. Although the verses are imbued with a poetic style no longer in fashion, the point Foss made remains a pertinent one for the creative leader in school administration. He wrote in part:

One day through the primeval wood
A calf walked home as good calves should;
But made a trail all bent askew,
A crooked trail as all calves do.
Since then three hundred years have fled,
And I infer the calf is dead.
But still he left behind his trail,
And thereby hangs my moral tale.
The trail was taken up next day
By a lone dog that passed that way;
And then a wise bellwether sheep
Pursued the trail o'er vale and steep,
And drew the flock behind him, too,
As good bellwethers always do.
And from that day, o'er hill and glade,
Through these old woods a path was made.

The years passed on in swiftness fleet,
The road became a village street;
And this, before men were aware,
A city's crowded thoroughfare.
And soon the central street was this
Of a renowned metropolis;
And men two centuries and a half
Trod in the footsteps of that calf.
Each day a hundred thousand rout
Followed this calf about
And o'er his crooked journey went
The traffic of a continent,
A hundred thousand men were led
By one calf near three centuries dead.
They follow still his crooked way,
And lose one hundred years a day;
For thus such reverence is lent
To well-established precedent.

In education, as in any line of endeavor, effective leadership needs to avoid the easy habit of following the "path of the calf," the comfortable trail of tradition. Because of the social importance of the school (and because of the tendency of some

schools to personify cultural lag) administrators have an important *obligation* to use intelligence.

Every professional practitioner worthy of the name has standards and ethics. To be an ethical member of *his* profession the administrator in education must recognize the moral responsibility of being charged with the welfare of children and youth. The leader also must recognize that the obligation to use intelligence is one of the ethical characteristics of the leadership responsibility.

And what does that verbal abstraction, "the obligation to use intelligence," mean?

It implies developing an insight into the values that motivate one's own behavior and the repudiation of those values that are unworthy.

It requires guiding educational choices and decisions which give meaning to the maturation of children moving toward adult democratic citizenship responsibilities.

It means the triumph of human reason over the temptations of expediency, recourse to superstition, and subservience to prejudice.

It involves the best of moral efforts to answer the questions, "What is the purpose of education?" "What is an educated man?" "How can education free the minds and hearts of men to create a humane civilization?" and "How can mankind outmatch with improved human beings the improved technology of the present which simultaneously promises a Golden Age without parallel and threatens a Dark Age of internecine horror?"

The obligation to use intelligence can scarcely be exaggerated. Through its application in the past man has developed the ethics and morality of Western ideals of justice, standards for coöperative living, and the courage to work for better tomorrows. Sometimes because of, sometimes in spite of, education, man has devised local and global government. (However imperfectly they may function at times, these are proud achievements!) He has subdued vast areas of land and water

and even dares to turn an appraising eye on the reaches of space between the worlds.

For millennia there have been no enduring barriers to man's skill, courage, and patience in the long climb from French cave or Swiss lake dwellings to the brink of unprecedented improvements in the lot of all mankind. The vision of what the world can become should motivate leadership gladly and selflessly to work for improved educational opportunities. May creative educational leadership increasingly feel the desire to strive with all persons of good intent to keep children and youth hungry for knowledge and appreciative of good things great and small, old and new. May the young, as they move through school, learn to hate a lie, to retain the spirit of adventure, to feel indignation at injustice, and to recognize that the welfare of the individual human being is identical with the welfare of all.

These are some of the goals which charge the leader with the obligation to use intelligence. May the obligation never be taken lightly.

SUMMARY

The privileges and responsibilities of educational leadership should draw to administrative positions the highest type of persons the culture can produce: individuals who merit the earned satisfactions which are inherent in the process of being associated with educators of sufficient vitality to contribute significantly to society.

In order to be secure as an educational leader, the administrator needs to develop an accurate understanding of his personal resources, of the demands of his job, and of the requirements of the culture which shapes and is, in turn, shaped by education. He should be reasonably certain that his personal attributes fit him for a leadership role and, if so, make a sustained effort to prepare for that role and to keep his preparation up-to-date.

Specific hypotheses were advanced in Chapter Seventeen as to how preparation for leadership could best be attained. Following this the meaning and nature of professional leadership activities were considered.

The book ends with an attempt to state explicitly a viewpoint implicit throughout its chapters: that able leadership recognizes the moral responsibility of working with children and youth and accepts with this responsibility the obligation to use to the utmost of one's capacity the resources of one's intelligence.

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APPENDIX

HISTORICAL BACKGROUNDS OF EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP



WHEN Horace Mann, Henry Barnard, Thomas Gallaudet, Emma Willard, Elizabeth Peabody, W. T. Harris and other dedicated leaders in education during the last century were building the structure of improved educational programs, the challenges they faced were difficult in the extreme.¹ There were few established traditions of public support for the schools, only the vaguest of standards for judging good teaching, and but scant respect for childhood and youth. Often these leaders persevered and pioneered in the face of belligerent opposition in striving for wholesome living and learning environments for young children, provisions for the physically handicapped, higher education for women, or improved organization and administration of education.

Distinguished leaders of the past century, such as those mentioned, were creators and innovators. What Mann, Barnard, and others accomplished deserves the utmost respect. However, each was the child of his time. He helped to solve problems and to create opportunities for the young in *his* era. In other

¹ A readable account of the administration, skill, and spirit of these and other great educational leaders is to be found in Mildred S. Fenner and Eleanor C. Fishburn, *Pioneer American Educators* (Washington, D. C., The National Education Association, 1944).

words, leadership accomplishments of both the distant and the recent past have altered and improved educational practices and conditions but they have in no way either lessened the opportunities or decreased the responsibilities of principals, superintendents, supervisors, consultants, and others who are at present in administrative positions. In American education there is not only a heritage to be preserved, there is also the responsibility to use effectively the educational knowledge which has been stockpiled, and to extend present opportunities for all children.

"The past just as past is no longer our affair," wrote Dewey, "but knowledge of the past is the key to understanding the present."² The past development of administrative-supervisory positions will now be examined briefly, therefore, in order that the status of educational leadership today may be better understood.

ADMINISTRATION AND SUPERVISION IN TIMES PAST

Within the memory of men still active in the profession, the role of educational leaders has undergone remarkable changes. William C. Reavis, Professor Emeritus in School Administration, the University of Chicago, and an elder statesman in his field, has characterized the former status of some superintendents, in whose schools he made certain of his early surveys, in the following personal recollection:

Early in the study the [survey] staff and I met with the board of education. I was introduced to each member in turn and invited to take a seat at the table. I had, in the meantime, noticed a man sitting quietly at a desk in the corner of the room. Since I had not met him I asked the board president whom he might be.

"Oh," said the president, "he's the superintendent. We might happen to want him for something."³

² John Dewey, *Democracy and Education* (New York, The Macmillan Co., 1916), pp. 250-251.

³ Dr. Reavis told this story at an informal luncheon meeting for Chicago area superintendents in December, 1952. It is based on notes in the writers' files.

Reavis' anecdote dates from the World War I period, *circa* 1916. It reflects clearly, in the almost disdainful phrases of the board president, the frequently menial status of the top administrative position as recently as 40 years ago. A few boards of education, usually in isolated areas, continue to think of the superintendent as a low-grade public servant whose job it is to hew the wood and draw the water—that is, to execute the chores specified by the board. In the overwhelming majority of school districts, however, the professional role of the administrator has come to be both recognized and respected.

The Emergence of the Superintendency. A century and more ago the role of the local school head was vaguely defined and simple in function. Because the local lay committee which ran the early public schools could not cope with the increasing complexity of its duties (*circa* 1826) it began to employ an administrator variously known by the title of "manager" or "school visitor." This individual appears to have had a composite function which sometimes included that of the supervisory head teacher (who antedated him historically and also performed duties now handled by the superintendent).⁴ By the 1840's several cities such as Cleveland and Baltimore had explored the idea of hiring a "school treasurer" or "school manager," but the present-day conception of the job had not yet materialized.⁵ With reference to the nineteenth century, one source notes that:

. . . the early superintendency failed to receive enthusiastic applause from the public. Having found the job of school supervision impossible thru their own combined efforts, boards expressed doubt that any single person could perform all the duties, even if he did nothing else. Sometimes they resented, as a reflection on themselves, the proposal for an executive officer. . . . Lack of knowledge as to how to evaluate administrative competence and the total absence of both professional

⁴ Henry Suzzallo, *The Rise of Local School Supervision in Massachusetts* (New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1908), p. 144.

⁵ T. L. Reller, *The Development of the City Superintendency of Schools in the United States* (Philadelphia, published by the author, 1935), p. 14.

preparation facilities and professional standards made it difficult for boards to come to a decision.⁶

It also has been observed that head teachers and similar progenitors of the present-day principal sometimes were wary of acquiring a superior officer. One writer calls their opposition "serious" because of the fear on the part of the head teacher that he would lose responsibility and authority.⁷

In spite of handicaps such as those cited, over 25 major American cities had, by the 1860's, appointed men to positions involving duties analogous to those now performed by the superintendent. By 1890 Dr. M. E. Gates was able to state, as recorded in the *Proceedings of the National Education Association*, that of the 420 cities over 5,000 inhabitants in the U. S. all but 40 had employed a superintendent of schools.

In general, the leadership responsibilities accepted by these men were simple in comparison with those of the administrative leader today. Here and there, however, administrators were at work spearheading advances in education which are now taken for granted. The schools of St. Louis, for example, became places of national interest under the dynamic direction of William T. Harris. Beginning as Assistant Superintendent in 1866, and for 13 years as General Superintendent, his success was brilliant.⁸ Under his administration Susan Blow introduced the first English language kindergartens in the United States (1873), and an elementary school science program—rare even now in many cities—was made a part of the curriculum in 1871.⁹ Similar innovations were the rule during his tenure.

Origins of Supervision. Supervision, if it is defined broadly, has a longer history in American education than has administration. Old records of the City of Boston indicate that citizens' committees were appointed as far back as 1709 for the purpose

⁶ American Association of School Administrators, *The American School Superintendency*, XXXth Yearbook (Washington, D. C., The Association, 1952), pp. 52-53.

⁷ Reller, *op. cit.*, p. 57ff.

⁸ Fenner and Fishburn, *op. cit.*, p. 113ff.

⁹ S. R. Slavson and R. K. Speer, *Science in the New Education* (New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1934), pp. 18-21.

of examining pupils and inspecting school equipment. Early school boards or school committees sometimes visited the classroom, or delegated this task to local clergymen, to ascertain that the moral fiber as well as the intellectual development of children was properly nurtured.

By the middle of the nineteenth century, in larger communities, the school superintendent or his assistants shared with head teachers or principals the general responsibility for supervision. Discipline, skill in the three R's, and moral education seem to have been among the items most consistently checked and appraised.¹⁰ The absence of professional programs in teacher education and the low status of elementary school personnel, especially before 1910, undoubtedly combined to give early supervisors many of the responsibilities now associated with teacher education programs. Until the 1920's it was not uncommon for supervisory employees to share in operating city and county normal schools, in which teachers spent from a few weeks to two years preparing to teach a specific subject or in a specific grade.

Administration and Supervision Come of Age. During the period 1875-1900, the American public school superintendency began to come of age. It was during this era, too, that supervision in special fields was introduced.¹¹ The position of art supervisor existed in Massachusetts by 1871,¹² and special music teachers had been employed even earlier.¹³

By 1920 the duties of both administrators and supervisors had been quite clearly defined and generally accepted. So fully had the fields of administration and supervision developed it was possible for numerous books to be written, even in spe-

¹⁰ For treatments of early supervision, cf. E. E. Brown, *The Making of Our Middle Schools* (New York, Longmans, Green and Co., 1903). Also, cf. Suzzallo, *op. cit.*, and Lawrence A. Cremin, *The American Common School: An Historic Concept* (New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1951), p. 129ff.

¹¹ F. C. Ayer and A. S. Barr, *The Organization of Supervision* (New York, D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1928), cf. Chapters I-IV.

¹² Walter S. Monroe (ed.), *Encyclopedia of Educational Research* (New York, The Macmillan Co., 1950), p. 64.

¹³ *Ibid.*, p. 762.

cialized areas such as school finance and school plant. Among leading writers of the decade were E. P. Cubberley, J. C. Morrison, Ward Reeder, I. L. Kandel, George Strayer, Sr., and Fred and N. L. Engelhardt. Further evidence of the growing recognition of administrative leadership was the increasing level of superintendents' academic preparation. By 1920 a sizable majority of these men, in cities over 100,000 had completed work for the Master's degree and one in five held the Doctorate,¹⁴ seemingly an indication that administrators' qualifications were increasing along with their responsibilities. A further index to the status of the superintendent of the 1920's was his financial position. A national sampling of 82 cities disclosed that the average administrator heading a school system received an annual salary \$1,200 greater than that of the mayor of his city,¹⁵ the next highest paid official.

And what of leadership responsibilities as they coalesced during 1900-1930? Boards of education began, during this interval, to accept the idea that their chief executive was appreciably more than an errand-boy hired to do their bidding after a board decision was reached. Gradually he came to be looked upon as an indispensable professional counselor to whom one turned as to a physician, engineer, lawyer, or architect for professional or clinical advice. Not only did he become a trusted chief executive; he was also a vital link between the board and the dynamically expanding educational program in its entirety. His leadership role came to encompass responsibility for advice with reference to curriculum development, the purchase and use of educational materials, school organization, supervision of teaching, personnel policies, school housing, schoolkeeping, and the maintenance of desirable public relations. In sizable school systems an entire corps of assistants and specialists was developed to extend, to supplement, and to increase the effectiveness of his functions as the board's chief professional official.

¹⁴ B. C. Douglass (ed.), *Professional and Economic Status of the City Superintendent of Schools in the United States*, First Yearbook, The Department of Superintendence, NEA (Washington, D. C., The Department, 1923), p. 35.

¹⁵ D. M. Kidd and P. M. Clem, "Salaries of Superintendents and Mayors," *American School Board Journal*, 43:51, October, 1926.

In a fashion which was roughly parallel, expansion in the duties and opportunities of principals and supervisors kept pace with those of the superintendent. (In larger cities important places were created for such individuals as personnel directors, public relations directors, business managers, and specialists in the building and maintenance fields.)

One of the early definitive statements of the concept of the professional equipped supervisor was prepared by Burton¹⁶ in 1922. At that time the supervisor's role was sufficiently clear to permit Burton to single out five areas in which superintendents frequently delegated authority to supervising principals and general supervisors.¹⁷ Among the duties involved were: (1) the improvement of specific teaching skills through such means as observation and demonstration, (2) the direction of in-service education, (3) establishing educational goals and appropriate content and learning experiences to satisfy them, (4) testing children and measuring educational outcomes, and (5) rating teachers.¹⁸

By 1930 the first phase of the developing twentieth century interpretations of educational leadership had reached the apex of its growth. Schools were intricately organized, leadership functions well established, and the professional status of responsible educational positions thoroughly defined. The line-and-staff type of organization was widely accepted as a means of distinguishing among the responsibilities and duties of all persons concerned. The form of the organizational framework used by many schools during the 1920's and 1930's is illustrated in Figures 34 and 35.

Since organizational diagrams from the mid-1920's are given below, it seems appropriate to introduce an organizational chart of more recent vintage for purposes of comparison. Figure 36

¹⁶ W. H. Burton, *Supervision and the Improvement of Teaching* (New York, D. Appleton-Century Co., 1922).

¹⁷ Cf. Chapter Four, pp. 108-110, *supra*, for an analysis of the ways in which Burton's five functions have begun to change in practice since the 1920's.

¹⁸ W. H. Burton, *op. cit.*, p. 9ff.

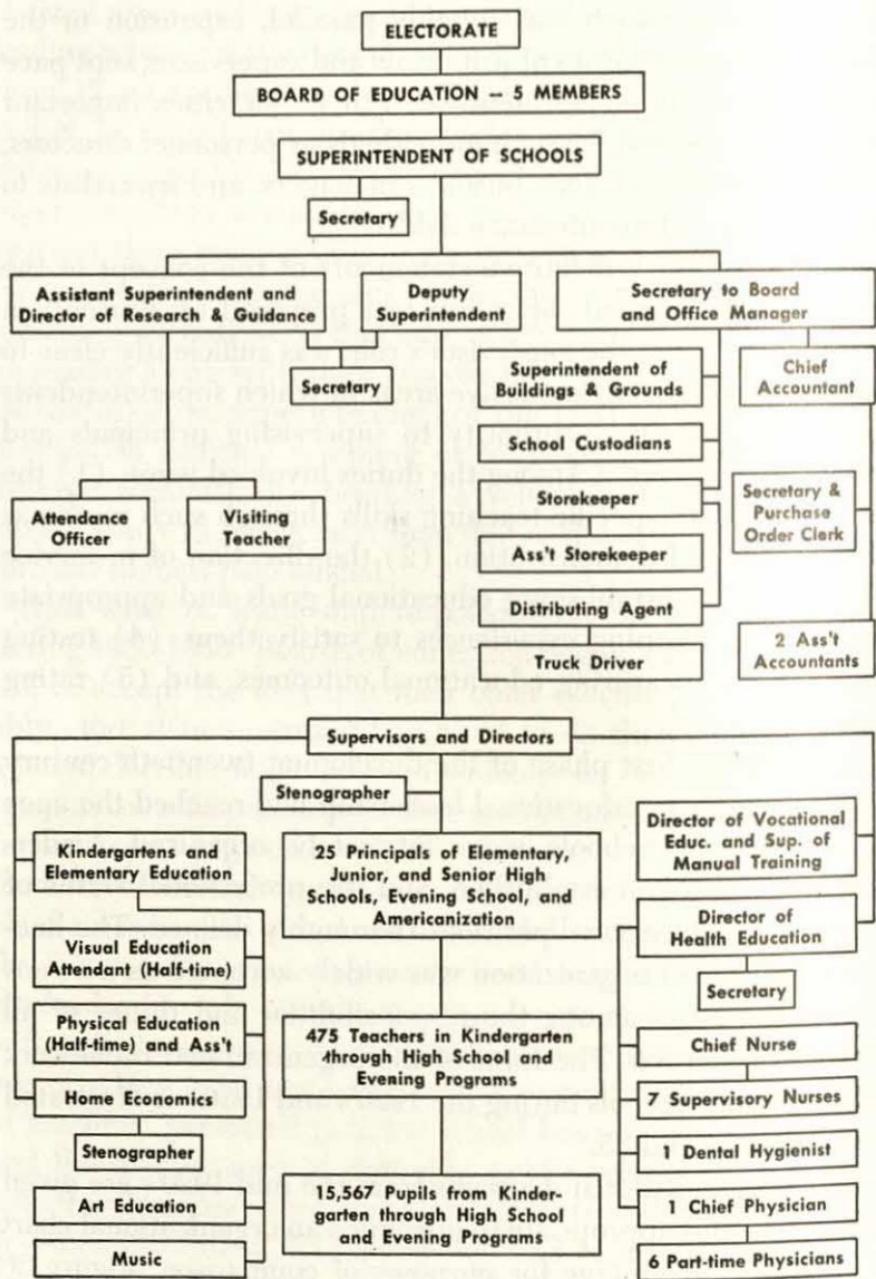


FIG. 34. Plan of organization used in the public schools of Berkeley, California, in 1926.¹⁹ (Originally printed in the *Superintendent's Annual Report*.)

¹⁹ Adapted with minor modifications from Fred Engelhardt, *Public School Organization and Administration* (Boston, Ginnand Company, 1931), p. 145.

reproduces the organization plan distributed in the Racine, Wisconsin Public Schools in April, 1953.

Note the "Conference Committee" and the "School-Community Council" as well as a "Bargaining Committee" for the business staff as reflections of developments in recent decades.

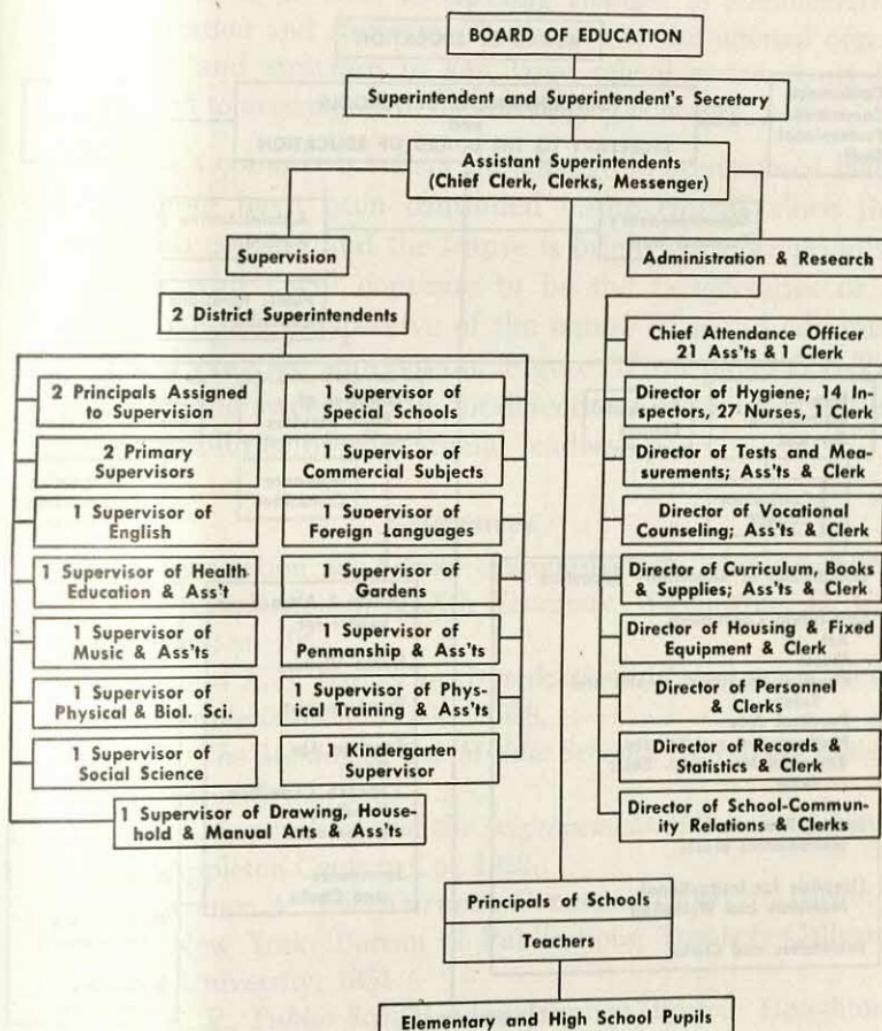


FIG. 35. Plan of organization used in the public schools of St. Louis, Missouri, in 1927.²⁰ Note that despite variations between Figures 34 and 35 the basic concept of descending lines of authority is characteristic of both organizational diagrams. (Originally printed in the *Superintendent's Annual Report*.)

²⁰ Adapted with minor modifications from Engelhardt, *op. cit.*, p. 146.

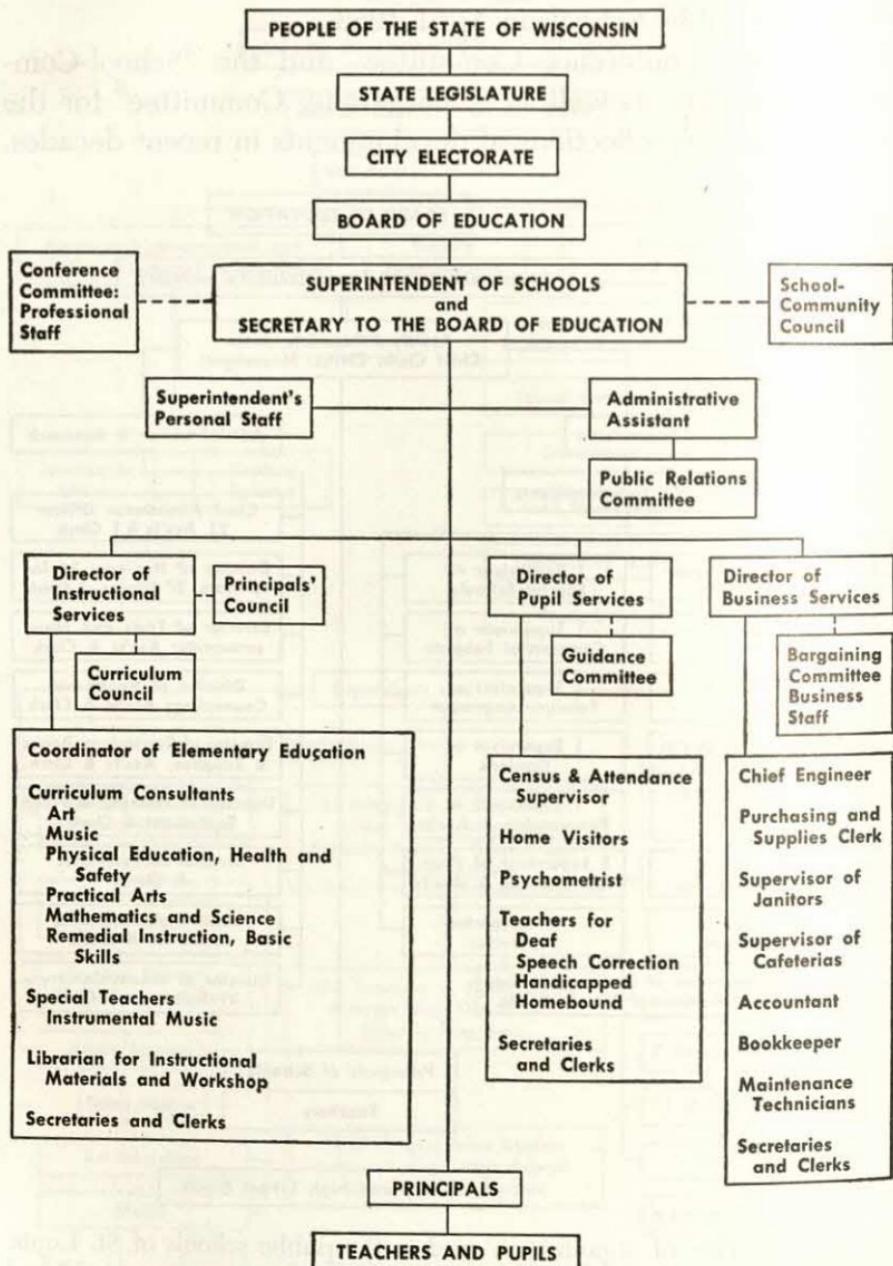


FIG. 36. Administrative organization of the Racine, Wisconsin, Public Schools, April, 1953.

In a statement accompanying the Racine diagram, Dr. Ernest G. Lake, the superintendent, wrote as follows:

School administrative practices in the United States have undergone a gradual shifting of emphasis in the past decades. School administrators need to be aware of these changes in emphasis and need to be alert to effecting changes in administrative organization and structure. The nature of the internal organization and structure in any large school system must be changed to accommodate these changing concepts. . . .²¹

Dr. Lake's comments reflect the change in educational leadership. There have been continued improvements since the seventeenth century and the future is bright with the promise of schools which will continue to be the beneficiaries of a steadily changing perspective of the nature of sound administration and creative supervision. Figure 37 on pages 556-557 summarizes the sweep of the modifications in sources, status, and responsibilities of educational leadership.

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²¹ Ernest G. Lake, *The "New Look" in School Organization and Administration*. (Mimeographed statement accompanying *The New Administrative Organization of the Racine Schools*, April 1953). Unpaged.

FIG. 37. Sources of Educational Leadership and Modifications in Its Status and in Its Responsibilities.

Approximate period	Source of Leadership	Status of Leadership	Responsibility of Leadership
1640-1799	Local residents "supervised" the program and performed administrative functions: hiring, maintenance, etc. As schools grew, lay selectmen delegated responsibility to inspect or oversee programs and to report to Town Meeting on needs and accomplishments of schools (<i>circa</i> 1709).	"Head teachers" had little or no status in most districts. Often considered on social level of tradespeople.	The staff was expected merely to "keep school"; to see that education was morally sound, as directed by local selectmen or ministers. No genuine professional leadership in evidence save as it was exercised by a few headmasters such as Ezechiel Cheever of the Boston Latin School.
1800-1899	A few great leaders appeared: e.g., Barnard, Mann, Harris. Harris foreshadowed (1870) the able, respected, erudite and dynamic General Superintendent. Supervision took form in special fields (1825-1875). Much leadership still exercised by local lay groups which directed teachers' activities as community mores suggested.	Most educational leadership received little recognition. The founding of professional groups such as the NEA (1857) and the AASA (1865) suggest nascent professionalization. By 1860-1870 the superintendency was well established in many large cities, but the superintendent's status remained relatively menial.	Administrative responsibilities generally limited and dictated by local boards. An increasing number of routine tasks began to confront the administrator: personnel, maintenance, finance, etc. A few leaders, e.g., Preston Search, Francis Parker, W. T. Harris, began to interpret leadership with imagination and creative power.

1900-1925	<p>Responsibility for leadership (usually highly authoritarian) began to gravitate to the superintendent and line-and-staff specialists. Scant community participation in educational planning.</p>	<p>Professional status was recognized and more fully respected than before 1900, although exceptions were abundant. Status of teachers was low but gradually improving.</p>	<p>Local boards delegated more professional duties and responsibilities to the administrator. More influential advisory roles were assumed by educational leaders in their relationships with the board and community groups.</p>
1926 to date	<p>New emphases on democracy in education appeared. The total staff was recognized more fully as a source of creative ideas for better educational planning. The rôle of lay members in shaping education was recognized in a new context of <i>sharing</i>, different in conception and in spirit from the <i>control</i> exercised in town meetings of a past century.</p>	<p>Teachers and administrators were recognized as contributors to educational planning and progress; school people were accorded increasingly higher status in local communities. Administrators became the highest paid city employees, thus suggesting public recognition and concomitant status of educational leadership.</p>	<p>Pronounced responsibility for nearly all aspects of education, save basic board of education policy formation, was usually delegated to administrators and staff. A new "reverse trend," after 1935, was characterized by efforts of educational leadership to invite lay representatives to share in the responsibilities of educational planning. This is somewhat reminiscent of local participation in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries.</p>

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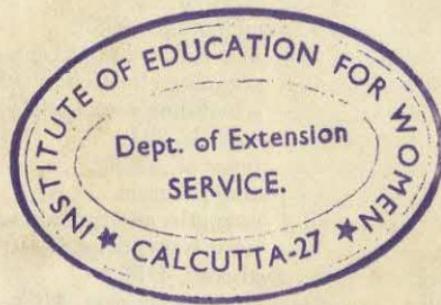
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REACTIONARY

CONSERVATIVE

LEVEL I:

Oversimplification of basic emphases

Emphasis upon subjects

LEVEL II:

Purposes

To transmit the cultural heritage: emphasis on knowledge per se.

To meet the needs, purposes and interests of children. Content begins to be a means rather than an end in itself.

LEVEL III:

Philosophy

Aristotelian-authoritarian: "perennialist"

Humanistic: "essentialist"

LEVEL IV:

Psychology

Mental discipline; faculty psychology

Behaviorism

LEVEL V:

Participants in curriculum development

"The expert with the answers" - state or local curriculum authorities.

Teacher committees working under directive administrative leadership.

LEVEL VI:

Determinants of children's experiences

Prescribed and detailed course of study

Specific content outline

Flexibility

LEVEL VII:

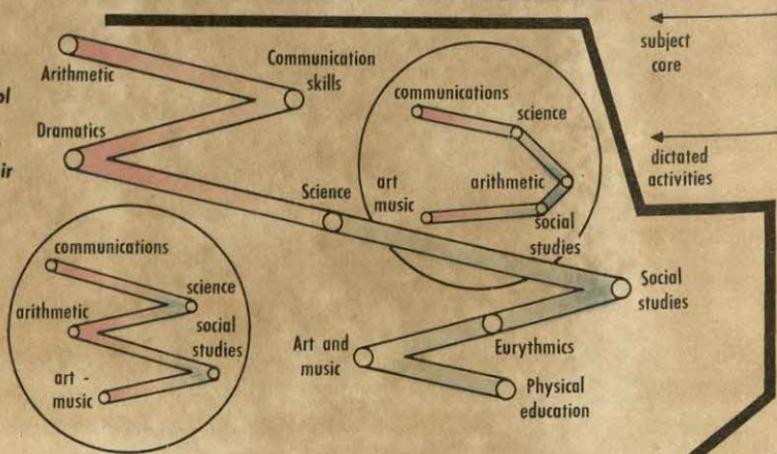
Type of curriculum organization

Subject-centered curriculum

Correlated: subject-centered

LEVEL VIII:

Profile of the school and of individual teachers (A and B) with respect to their interpretations of curriculum theory in subject fields.



LE-OF
LOAD

LIBERAL

EXPERIMENTAL

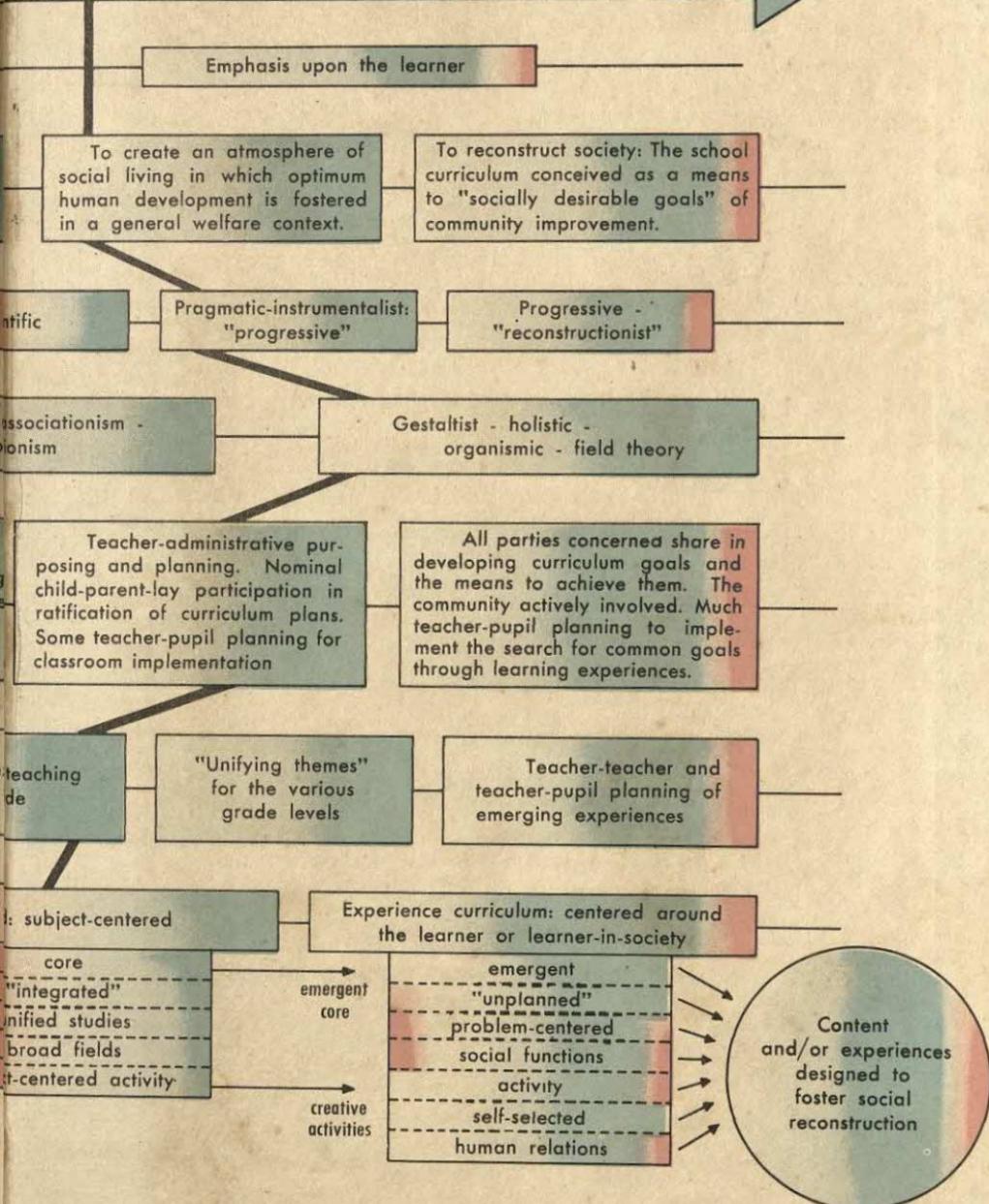


Figure 11, Chapter Eight

